AN INVESTIGATION OF SPONSORSHIP EFFECTS AT CHARITY-LINKED SPORTING EVENTS: DOES GENDER MATTER?

by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Human Studies

The Faculty of Graduate Studies
Laurentian University
Sudbury, Ontario, Canada

THESIS DEFENCE COMMITTEE/COMITÉ DE SOUTENANCE DE THÈSE
Laurentian Université/Université Laurentienne
Faculty of Graduate Studies/Faculté des études supérieures

Title of Thesis Titre de la thèse	AN INVESTIGATION OF SPONSORSHIP EFFECTS AT CHARITY-LINKED SPORTING EVENTS: DOES GENDER MATTER?
Name of Candidate Nom du candidat	Lafrance Horning, Denyse
Degree Diplôme	Doctor of Philosophy
Department/Program Département/Programme	Human Studies
Date of Defence Date de la soutenance	November 6, 2014

APPROVED/APPROUVÉ

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Abstract

The purpose of my dissertation was two-fold. First, this research contributed to an understanding of the effects of the emerging area of cause-related sport sponsorship (CRSS) on consumer perceptions and responsiveness in terms of sponsor interest, favourability, and intended use. Second, this investigation examined the potential influence of gender at all stages of the sponsorship process through a comparison of grouped samples that included respondents of spectators of men's versus women's hockey, and cancer-cause versus social-cause affiliated events. A proposed framework of consumer processing of CRSS extended earlier findings by Speed and Thompson (2000) and Alay (2008) in highlighting multiple paths of possible influence for both women and men to process sponsorship factors and to respond at the various levels of effect, leading to an investigation of the relationships between five possible predictors of sponsorship response. These included gender, personal involvement (with sport and with cause), gender-support (for women and for men), sponsor-event fit, and perceived sincerity of the sponsor.

Field-level data was collected among spectators of five different charity-linked (women's and men's) hockey events across three different Ontario cities. A total of 314 women and 319 men participated in this study. Findings confirmed the direct and indirect influence of personal involvement, sponsor-event fit, and perceived sincerity of the sponsor on CRSS response. The potential impact of sponsorship at all levels of the hierarchy of effects was also recognized. This study conceptualizes the *Diamond of CRSS Goodwill* to highlight the expanded platform of consumer engagement offered through these evolved forms of sponsorship. This proposed concept illustrates the interacting effects of goodwill, involvement, and reciprocal return in sponsorships that unite consumers and sponsors with elements of both sport and cause. With regards to gender differences, women expressed significantly greater involvement with social causes than did men. Gender support was also established as a significant and mediating influence on all levels of female consumer response. The answer to whether gender matters in CRSS was discovered to be highly contextual and reflective of complex relationships that are not only based on differences but also on equally important similarities between genders.

Keywords

Sponsorship, cause-linked sport, gender differences in consumer behaviour

Acknowledgments

As most PhD students acknowledge, the journey to a doctoral degree is one filled with many significant imprints. I joined forces with Dr. Norm O'Reilly in 2008 and Norm has stuck with me as my advisor through this lengthy process. Along with my other committee members, Dr. Ann Pegoraro and Dr. Benoit Séguin, these accomplished scholars have offered valuable insight and direction through the development of my dissertation.

I also acknowledge Nipissing University for signing me on as an industry practitioner and supporting me through my studies. I thank Dr. David Hemsworth who took every opportunity to ensure that I was progressing and for showing great patience in answering my many stats questions. I am also grateful to Nipissing University and Laurentian University Athletics, the Ottawa Senators, and the Sudbury Wolves organizations for supporting my data collection. I applaud the tremendous efforts of the Nipissing University Sport Marketing and Laurentian University Event Management students in raising almost $8,000 for event-affiliated charities.

Every PhD student should be so fortunate as to have a version of Dr. Callie Mady in their corner. Little did I know when the Mady family moved into our neighborhood that Callie would become not only a cherished friend and colleague but also an incredible mentor, proof-reader, listener, and enthusiastic cheerleader. I hope that one day I can serve as a similar mentor for a developing scholar.

I have saved the best for last – my family is truly the best! My parents, siblings, husband, and children have all contributed in so many meaningful ways. They have all legitimately earned a piece of this degree. Thank you all for your interest, encouragement, and unconditional love. Steve, thank you for always believing in me, for your relentless support, for tending to many neglected household tasks, and for always reminding me of our "bigger picture". To my girls – Ellie & Sydney, your patience, genuine inquisitiveness and cheerfulness always fuels me. Your "Go Mommy Go" chant rings on.

Sincere appreciation to you all,

Denyse

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Appendices

Chapter 1

1.0 Introduction

The modern marketing landscape is dynamic and in a perpetual state of evolution. Tied to social trends and changing consumer attitudes and behaviours, marketing strategies must be quickly adapted to new marketplace realities. Sponsorship has evolved to become an important strategy for marketers to engage consumers and to realize various business objectives. Sponsorship is a growing industry that is projected to reach over $55 billion in global investment in 2014 (IEG, 2014). Sport remains the most prominent form of sponsorship while growth is also observed in other areas such as causes, entertainment, and festivals (IEG, 2014; O'Reilly & Beselt, 2013). As the industry matures, various types of sponsorship are beginning to merge (such as sport and cause, art and cause, and sport and festivals) and are effectively blurring the traditional set of sponsorship classifications.

Given the prominence of sport, early sponsorship research efforts have been mainly grounded in the context of sport (Farrelly, Quester, & Burton, 1997; Quester & Thompson, 2001). Furthermore, sport has traditionally been male-dominated and therefore a significant portion of sponsorship knowledge has been derived through investigations of male sports and male consumers with little consideration for women's sports or for women as targets of sponsorship efforts (Lough & Irwin, 2001). Over the past decade, increased attention has been devoted to women in the sponsorship industry (Dodds et al., 2014; Sack & Fried, 2001; Shaw & Amis, 2001; Maxwell & Lough, 2009). A synthesis of reviewed literature suggests that this marked shift toward female interests can be attributed to three main influences. The first is that gender is among the most relied upon consumer segmentation variables. Gender (in the context of biological sex) is an objective variable that is sizeable, identifiable and reachable through

marketing campaigns (Darley & Smith, 1995; Perreault, McCarthy, Meredith, & Ricker, 2007; Putrevu, 2001). The second factor driving interest in the female market is the increased recognition of the influence of women and the corresponding profit potential of engaging this lucrative female market (Barletta, 2006; Johne, 2010; Johnson & Learned, 2004). Finally, evidence of fundamental gender differences in consumer behaviour has effectively captured the attention of sponsorship scholars and practitioners who realize the need to adapt marketing strategies to reflect these significant differences (Dodds et al., 2014; Goodrich, 2014; Green & Antoine, 2011; Kempf, Laczniak, & Smith, 2006; Meyers-Levy, 1989; Wajda, Hu, & Cui, 2008).

This dissertation was guided by a review of close to three hundred sources that allowed for the identification, quantification, and thorough analysis of leading trends in sponsorship marketing. The purpose of this dissertation is to contribute to an understanding of the effects of the emerging area of cause-related sport sponsorship (CRSS) on consumer perceptions and responsiveness in terms of sponsor interest, favourability, and intended use. Furthermore, the potential influence of gender at all stages in the sponsorship process is investigated.

The review of the sponsorship literature is structured around the primary streams of published research (i.e., nature of sponsorship, managerial aspects of sponsorship, sponsorship effects, and strategic use of sponsorship). The strategic evolution and worldwide adoption of sponsorship validates this promotional method as an effective means to emotionally engage consumers at the cognitive, affective and behavioural stages. Thirty-three sponsorship studies focusing on consumer effects are considered. Through this review, involvement is identified as an important consumer dimension in the processing of sponsorship efforts. Sponsor-event fit, as well as consumer perceptions of sponsor sincerity, are also identified as key predictors of consumer response. The need to activate sponsorship associations is detailed with an observed trend

toward new forms of consumer engagement such as experiential marketing and digital connections. Ambush marketing is reviewed both as a threat to sponsorship as well as a competitively sound marketing approach.

Given the recent attention and growing importance of corporate social responsibility (CSR), charitable/cause associations are addressed in the review of literature. The many blurring forms of corporate goodness (e.g., CSR, community involvement, philanthropy, strategic giving, cause marketing, cause-related marketing, and cause sponsorship) are first distinguished allowing for a more focused review of current findings and emerging trends specific to cause sponsorship. The blending of sport and cause in the form of CRSS is highlighted as an increasingly prevalent industry practice in need of increased research efforts. The inclusion of cause in sponsorship programs injects an enhanced element of goodwill and shared benefits that distinguish this form of sponsorship from others (Hyllegard, Yan, Ogle, & Attman, 2011; Meher, 1999; Menon & Kahn, 2003). The remaining characteristics and influences of cause sponsorship remain consistent with those identified in the review of sponsorship literature. Namely, consumer involvement (Chang, 2012; Filo, Funk, & O'Brien, 2010; Hyllegard et al., 2011) and perceptions of fit and sincerity (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Close & Lacey, 2013; Heue & Plewa, 2010; Roy, 2011) along with sufficient activation investment (Meyer, 1999; Pearsall, 2009; Pope, 2010; Watt, 2010) are critical to the success of cause-affiliated marketing efforts. A review of an additional fifteen consumer effect studies affirms consumers' favourable response to cause-affiliated efforts (e.g., Berger, Cunningham, & Kozinets, 1999; Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Hajjat, 2003; Irwin, Lachowetz, Cornwell, & Clark, 2003; Roy & Graeff, 2003; Walker & Kent, 2009).

The literature review further focuses on sponsorship discovery from a gendered perspective. This section highlights the importance of gender considerations in marketing and proceeds to detail key differences that impact consumer behaviour and ultimately sponsorship response. The information processing styles of males and females are contrasted with the understanding that females tend to follow a more comprehensive and elaborate approach while males favour a more streamlined process that relies mainly on existing or readily-available information (Green & Antoine, 2011; Meyers-Levy, 1989; Wajda et al., 2008). An important distinction in the application of this selectivity hypothesis is that consumer processing can be influenced by situational factors and that adequate cues can prompt more detailed consideration by either gender (Darley & Smith, 1995). This caveat supports the expressed need for strategic sponsorship activation identified in the preceding review. The review of cause-affiliated studies (e.g., Meyers-Levy & Sternthal, 1991; Kolyesnikova, Dodd, & Wilcox, 2009) highlights female consumers' heightened sense of social responsibility and corresponding favour toward corporations that display genuine acts of kindness. Women's motivation to participate in sporting events associated with relevant causes is also considered as a significant observation (Bennett, Mousley, Kitchen, & Ali-Choudhury, 2007). A review of the development of women in sport is included to establish the growing relevance of sport in the lives of women (Adams, 2003; CCAA, 2011; CIS, 2011; IOC, 2013; Statistics Canada, 2010). It is recognized through this literature that women value sport and that the combination of sport and cause has the potential for exponential effect on female consumer perceptions and behaviours. These effects however have only been minimally explored.

The sport consumption behaviours of men and women are also contrasted. The importance of teamwork and enjoyment of sport above individual achievement and winning is highlighted as

being greater for women than for men (Bush, Bush, Shannahan, & Dupuis, 2007; Wiley, Shaw, & Havitz, 2000). Furthermore, the social aspect of sport is presented as a primary motivation for female sport participation and spectatorship (Bush et al., 2007; Clark, Apostolopoulou, & Gladden, 2009; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Shani, Sandler, & Long, 1992). Past studies (James & Ridinger, 2002; Kahle, Aiken, Dalakas, & Duncan, 2003; Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002) indicate that attendees of women's sporting events differ from those of men's events in terms of perceptions of various environmental factors (e.g., entertainment, concessions, seating, atmosphere, promotions, social interactions, and pricing). There is also growing observation of gender solidarity as women express a desire to celebrate and support the advancement of women in sport (Bennett et al., 2007; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Sack & Fried, 2001). Further research contrasting men's and women's sport is recommended in order to better understand possible differences and similarities in spectators' motivations and behaviours (James & Ridinger, 2002).

Adding to the thirty-three sponsorship effect studies and the fifteen cause-affiliated marketing effect inquiries, twelve further investigations involving gender differences in consumer response are considered. A total of sixty consumer effect studies are therefore examined in this review of published knowledge pertaining to consumer response. Findings from these gender involved studies support growing propositions that gender can impact consumer response to sponsorship and that involvement levels and perceptions of fit and sincerity are key considerations across genders (Bennett, Ferreira, Lee, & Polite, 2009; Bush et al., 2007; Bush, Martin, & Bush, 2004; Kinney, McDaniel, & DeGaris, 2008; McDaniel & Kinney, 1998; McDaniel, 1999).

Chapter three summarizes the review of existing sponsorship, cause, and gender marketing literature. Ten primary findings are extracted and directly linked to the purpose and design of this dissertation. These include:

i) the blending of sport and cause sponsorships,

ii) the significance of sponsor-event fit, perceived sincerity of the sponsor, and consumer involvement levels as determinants of sponsorship response,

iii) the prevalent use of the hierarchy of effects model to measure consumer response to sponsorship,

iv) women's affinity to corporate goodness,

v) women's increasing and distinctive involvement in sport,

vi) the notion of gender solidarity among women in sport and causes,

vii) the validity of the Sponsorship Evaluation Scale (SES),

viii) the need to further understand the role of gender in consumer response to sponsorship,

ix) the demand for field-based sponsorship investigations, and

x) a noted absence of Canadian-based sponsorship effects studies.

Based on existing knowledge and identified gaps, a conceptual framework for understanding consumer processing of CRSS is presented.

Chapter four formalizes the purpose of this dissertation and develops the hypothesized relationships that were tested through the proposed model of consumer processing of CRSS. There are three categories of variables from which the hypotheses for this study were formed. The categories include: i) consumer factors (gender, personal involvement with the sport, personal involvement with the cause, gender support for women, gender support for men), ii) sponsorship factors (sponsor-event fit, and perceived sincerity of the sponsor), and iii) sponsorship response in accordance with the hierarchy of effects (interest, favourability, and use). Eleven hypotheses were developed grounded in these categories. Each proposed

relationship was also tested for possible gender influence in an effort to highlight any significant differences between the processing and response of women and men in the context of this cause-related sport sponsorship investigation. The design of this spectator-based field level study is detailed along with a review of measurement scales relied upon to develop the consumer questionnaire. The importance of Speed and Thompson (2000) and Alay's (2008) earlier models of consumer response to sponsorship are noted as integral to the design of this current study. Data was collected at five different charity-linked (women's and men's) hockey events across three different cities (i.e., North Bay, Sudbury, and Ottawa) in the province of Ontario. A total of 314 women and 319 men participated in this study.

Chapter five presents the results of this investigation and details the statistical analyses undertaken to examine the hypotheses and to test the proposed model of consumer processing of CRSS. Statistical analysis was conducted at four levels of sample investigation: i) the all-events sample, ii) spectators of women's hockey events versus spectators of men's hockey events, iii) cancer-cause affiliated events versus social-cause affiliated events, and iv) attendees at the five individual CRSS hockey events.

Chapter six reflects on the results of this study in comparison to other relevant (and published) findings. Confirmed support for existing knowledge is detailed along with a discussion of the unique observations and contributions of this Canadian-based field-level investigation of CRSS from a gendered perspective. Guided by the output of this inquiry, an answer is offered to the question of whether gender matters in CRSS. The significance of findings in terms of support for existing theories across different sponsorship settings as well as unique discoveries offered through this dissertation are next highlighted, followed by a presentation of implications in terms of marketing to women through CRSS, marketing to men through CRSS, and general guidelines

for sponsorship success in the emerging area of CRSS. The final section of this dissertation acknowledges limitations of this study and suggests directions for future research.

Chapter 2

2.0 Review of Literature

A review of relevant literature was conducted in order to establish a sound understanding of existing sponsorship knowledge and to identify key areas in need of further research. This literature review is organized into three major sections. The first section reviews the four main streams of sponsorship research as categorized by Walliser (2003). These include: i) nature of sponsorship, ii) managerial aspects of sponsorship, iii) sponsorship effects, and iv) strategic use of sponsorship (strategies and counter-strategies). The second section focuses on the areas of cause-affiliated marketing and sponsorship, and the final section considers gender differences as they pertain to consumer processing of sponsorship marketing. This chapter is organized in a manner that first establishes a broad understanding of the sponsorship literature followed by a more focused presentation of topics most significant to the purpose of this dissertation (i.e., CRSS and gendered consumer response).

2.1 Sponsorship Marketing

Despite beliefs that sponsorship has actually existed for thousands of years, it is still often referred to as a new form of marketing promotion (Shanklin & Kuzma, 1992). This section details the evolution and growth of sponsorship as a core marketing strategy.

Cornwell and Maignan (1998) conducted an extensive international review of sponsorship research that included eighty articles spanning the 1983-1995 period. These authors organized their analysis around five major research streams. Walliser (2003) included an additional 153 articles in an extended and updated review which condensed the major sponsorship research streams into the following four areas: i) nature of sponsorship; ii) managerial aspects of

sponsorship; iii) measurement of sponsorship effects; and iv) strategic use of sponsorship (strategies and counter-strategies). Given the extensive nature of these well cited reviews, the same categorization of sponsorship streams was used to structure this literary review. Emphasis is placed on the measurement of sponsorship effects which is the focus of this dissertation.

2.1.1 Nature of Sponsorship

In understanding the nature of sponsorship, the following section begins with a review of commonly cited definitions, followed by an examination of industry spending and the role that sponsorship plays in the broader promotional mix.

Shanklin and Kuzma (1992) provided a historical account of sponsorship which dates back over 2,000 years to Ancient Rome where gladiator battles were sponsored by aristocrats. As early as 590 BC the Greek state sponsored Olympic athletes (Harris, 1964 as cited in Smith, 2004, p. 457) and the first Modern Olympic Games of 1896 benefited from Eastman Kodak's sponsorship. Coca-Cola's long standing Olympic partnership also dates back to 1928 (Davis, 2012). Despite these early roots, sponsorship as a formal promotional tool in modern marketing is still considered relatively new (Copeland, Frisby, & McCarville, 1996; O'Reilly, Nadeau, Seguin, & Harrison, 2007).

The contemporary version of sponsorship began in the early 1980s and has spiked and evolved over the past four decades (Meenaghan, 2001a; Cahill & Meenaghan, 2013). Meenaghan and O'Sullivan (2001) described this phenomenon as "…recent, spectacular, and pervasive" (p.87). According to Cornwell and Kwon (as cited in Cornwell & Humphreys, 2013, p.394) more than three-hundred academic papers regarding various aspects of sponsorship (e.g., concepts, management, measurement, and policy) have been published over the last decade. Throughout

this period of accelerated growth, the nature of sponsorship has progressed from altruistic and philanthropic motives to a more commercial, bottom-line focus (Copeland et al., 1996; Gwinner, Larson, & Swanson, 2009). Firms typically progress through three stages of sponsorship goals and participation: the first consists of pure donation with no expected return, the next level introduces some commercial interest, and the highest stage, which represents the majority of current sponsorship activity, demands clear financial return and is therefore planned and managed in a more sophisticated and controlled manner (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Thjomoe, Olson, & Bronn, 2002).

2.1.1.1 Defining Sponsorship

Over the past four decades, many attempts have been made to define sponsorship (Cornwell, 1995; Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Javalgi, Traylor, Gross, & Lampman, 1994; Lee & Sandler, 1997; Meenaghan, 1983; Sandler & Shani, 1989; Quester & Thompson, 2001). The following definition is prominent throughout the sponsorship literature. Meenaghan (1983) recognized commercial motives of sponsorship and defined it as, "…the provision of assistance either financial or in-kind to an activity by a commercial organization for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives" (p.9). Following an extensive review of the sponsorship literature, Walliser (2003) concluded that despite the lack of a universally agreed upon definition of sponsorship, there are a sufficient number of variations that exist leading the author to suggest that "instead of continuing a possibly never-ending academic debate about concurrent definitions of sponsorship, it may be more useful to focus research on the perception of sponsorship by its different targets" (Walliser, 2003, p.18). Using this recommendation by Walliser (2003), this dissertation focuses on examining consumer effects of sponsorship on both genders.

Sponsorship can involve a single sponsor but in most cases, properties encourage and rely on multiple sponsors (Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu, 2011). For instance, the National Hockey League (NHL) lists Kraft, Gatorade, Reebok, and Molson Canadian among twenty-two North American sponsors (NHL, 2014). A sponsor can also choose to partner with several properties thus creating a sponsorship portfolio (Chien et al., 2011) or a sponsorship roster (Ruth & Simonin, 2006). As an example, in addition to sponsoring the NHL, the Gatorade brand sponsors the National Football League (NFL), the National Basketball Association (NBA), Major League Baseball (MLB), and Major League Soccer (MLS). These multiple sponsorship systems are understandably more complex and have only recently begun to receive attention in the academic literature (Chanavat, Martinent, & Ferrant, 2009; Chanavat, Martinent, & Ferrant, 2010; Chien et al., 2011; Ruth & Simonin, 2006).

There are also different types of sponsorship according to the International Event Group (IEG, 2013), who identifies the following six property types: i) sports, ii) entertainment, iii) causes, iv) arts, v) festivals/fairs/annual events, and vi) associations and membership organizations. The Canadian Sponsorship Landscape Study (CSLS) (O'Reilly & Beselt, 2013) adopts a similar grouping of six categories: i) sports (which includes mainly sporting events, facilities, athletes, teams, clubs, leagues and organizations), ii) causes (events, charities, and causes), iii) festivals/events (annual community events, music festivals, fairs, etc.), iv) entertainment (tours and attractions), v) arts (museums, festivals, theatre, etc.), and vi) others (such as education, hospitals, tradeshows and conferences). The relative strength and roles of the various types of sponsorship will be further discussed following a review of sponsorship spending.

2.1.1.2 Sponsorship Spending

Sponsorship has evolved into a large industry. In 1984 (the infancy stage of corporate sponsorship), global sponsorship spending was estimated at $2 billion (Sponsorship Research International, 2000, as cited in Meenaghan & O'Sullivan, 2001, p.87). In 2013, this modest figure grew to a thriving $53.1 billion (IEG, 2014). Sponsorship spending is largest in North America with $19.8 billion in 2013 (37% of global spending), followed closely by Europe ($14.5 billion) and Asian Pacific markets ($12.6 billion). As detailed in Table 1 below, healthy sponsorship growth is observed across the globe. For 2014, IEG projects worldwide spending to increase 4.1% to $55.3 billion (IEG, 2014).

Table 1: Sponsorship Spending Trends (IEG, 2014)

IEG Sponsorship Report	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014 (est.)**
Global Spending	$37.9 billion*	$43.1B	$44.0B	$46.3B	$48.6B	$51.1B	$53.1B	$55.3B
% Growth		*+13.7%*	*+2.1%*	*+5.2%*	+5.1%	*+5.1%*	*+3.9%*	*+4.1%*
North America	$14.9B	$16.6B	$16.5B	$17.2B	$18.1B	$18.9B	$19.8B	$20.6B
% Growth		*+11.4%*	*-0.6%*	*+4.2*	*+5.2%*	*+4.4%*	*+4.5%*	*+4.3%*
Europe	$10.6B	$11.7B	$12.1B	$12.9B	$13.5B	$14.1B	$14.5B	$14.8B
% Growth		*+10.4%*	*+3.4%*	*+6.6%*	+4.7%	+4.4%	*+2.8%*	*+2.1%*
Asian Pacific	$7.6B	$9.5B	$10.0B	$10.6B	$11.2B	$12.0B	$12.6B	$13.3B
% Growth		*+25%*	*+5.3%*	*+6.0%*	*+5.7%*	*+7.1%*	*+5%*	*+5.6%*
Central & South America	$3.0B	$3.4B	$3.5B	$3.6B	$3.7B	$3.9B	$4.0B	$4.2B
% Growth		*+13.3%*	*+2.9%*	*+2.9%*	*+2.8%*	*+5.4 %*	*+2.6%*	*+5%*
All Other	$1.8B	$1.9B	$1.9B	$2B	$2.1B	$2.2B	$2.3B	$2.4B

Countries		*+5.6%*	*0%*	*+5.3%*	*+5.0%*	*+4.8%*	*+4.5%*	*+4.3%*

*All above figures are in US currency (billions).

The 7th Annual Canadian Sponsorship Landscape Study (O'Reilly & Beselt, 2013) provided sponsorship data specific to the Canadian marketplace. Stable sponsorship spending was reported in Canada with an estimated investment of $1.57 billion in 2012 sponsorship. Table 2 below provides Canadian sponsorship spending figures since 2006. It is important to note that these reported spending estimates represent the cost to acquire the rights to various sponsorship properties. They do not include any additional investments in promoting these sponsorships. As will be further discussed in the 'Strategic Use of Sponsorship' section, most companies devote additional spending to leverage these sponsorships.

Table 2: Canadian Sponsorship Spending Trends (O'Reilly & Beselt, 2012)

CSLS	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Spending	$1.11B*	1.22 B	1.39 B	1.43 B	$1.55B	$1.59	$1.57B
Growth		*+9.9%*	*+14%*	*+2.9%*	*+8.4%*	*+2.6%*	-

*All above figures are in Canadian currency (billions).

These impressive periods of growth validate Harvey's (2001) proclamation that "the future shall be the new Golden Age for sponsorship" (p.59). Burton and O'Reilly (2011) offered four reasons why sponsorship spending continues to grow (despite economic fallout): i) there is widespread evidence that sponsorship works to accomplish various business objectives (such as repositioning brands, altering consumer perceptions, and increasing sales), ii) creative sponsorship can efficiently target specific consumer segments, iii) sponsorship has distinct advantages over advertising, and iv) sponsorship can be more fun, with hospitality functions, backstage passes to prestigious events and charitable links to flatter social consciousness.

Sport accounts for the majority of sponsorships, commanding 69% of all North American spending and outpacing all other category growth with an increase of 5.1% in 2013 (IEG, 2014). As shown in Figure 1 below, the entertainment category is a distant second to sport capturing 10% of sponsorship spending but also realizing moderate growth at +2.1%. Causes are also receiving growing support from sponsors with 9% of category spending and a strong increase of 4.8% in 2013. IEG projects that 2014 cause sponsorship spending will increase by an additional 3.4%. The arts and festivals hold similar shares (5% and 4%) and finally, associations represent the least amount (3%) of North American sponsorships (IEG, 2014).

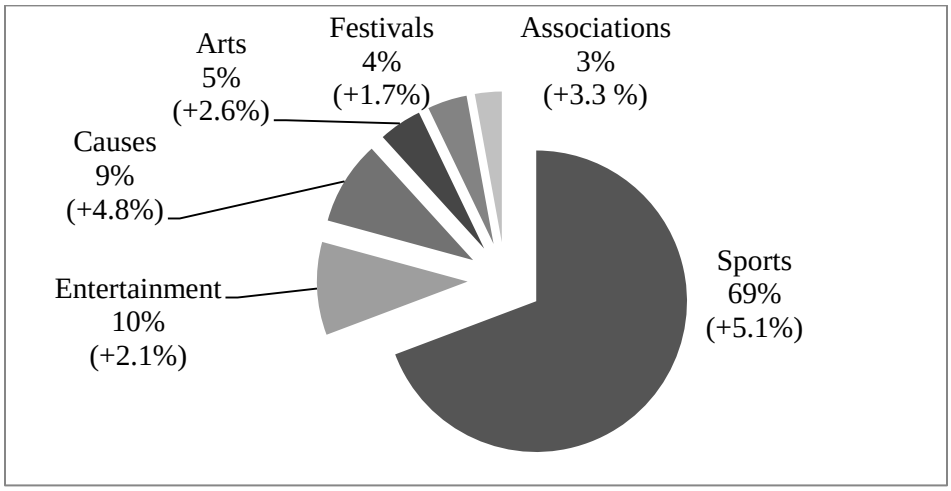

Figure 1: 2013 North American Sponsorship Spending by Property Type (IEG, 2014)

Sport also dominates the Canadian sponsorship market but to a lesser extent than reported by IEG (2014) for all North American markets. According to the CSLS (O'Reilly & Beselt, 2013), corporate investment by sponsorship type in 2012 was as follows: sport 49.4%, festivals and fairs 18.1%, arts 10.5%, causes 9.9%, media 5.9% and entertainment 1%. Figure 2 captures this Canadian sponsorship spending by type. Several of these Canadian findings differ from that reported by IEG (2014). The CSLS investigators; O'Reilly & Beselt (2013) suggested that varying interpretations of the category labels by survey respondents may account for some of

these discrepancies. For instance, sponsors could classify major sporting events (such as the Canadian Football League's Grey Cup or the Calgary Stampede) as either a sport or a festival type sponsorship. Similar re-classifications may be impacting other categories such as cause-related sport events (such as the CIBC Run for the Cure) being captured as either a cause or a sport. The occurrence of mega events (such as the 2010 Winter Olympic Games and the hosting of the G8 Summit) can also impact observed trends. These blurred category boundaries and inconsistent sponsorship descriptions are indicative of the previously mentioned challenges of defining sponsorship in a rapidly growing and complex environment. It is clear however from these two sponsorship spending studies that sponsorship is growing across all global markets; that sport remains the dominant choice of sponsors; causes are receiving increasing support; and that the traditional sponsorship categories are evolving and in some cases interrelating.

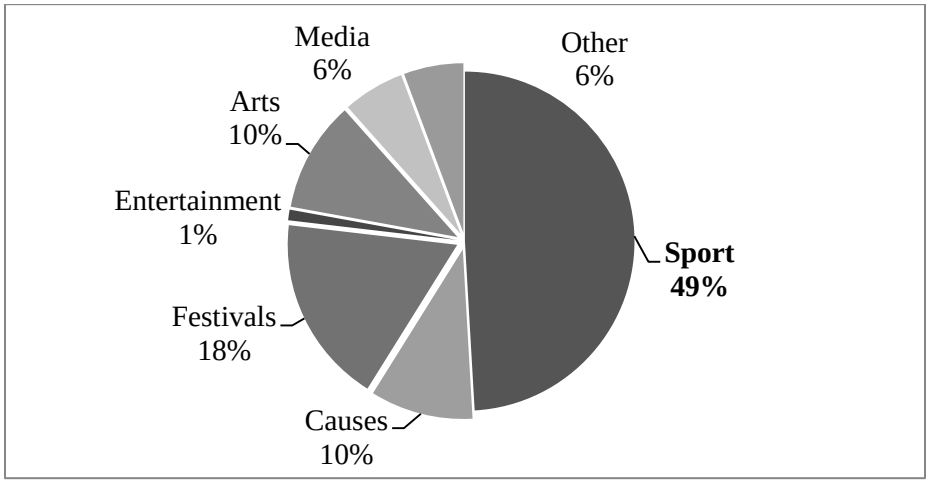

Figure 2: Canadian Sponsorship Spending by Property Type (O'Reilly & Beselt, 2013).

Given the stature of sport in sponsorship, the vast majority of past sponsorship knowledge has been derived from sport frameworks (Farrelly et al., 1997; Quester & Thompson, 2001). Various researchers have considered the relative strengths of the different types of sponsorships. Farrelly and Quester (2005) chose the sport context (Australian Football League) in their investigation of

co-marketing alliances. Their choice of sport was supported by the large-scale use of sport sponsorship, sport entities' reliance on sponsorship revenue, and the potential for mutual gain between sponsors and property owners. These authors captured the uniqueness of sport that attracts sponsors and researchers alike; "…sport has a substantial nonverbal component involving universal images of hope, pain, and victory, which can transcend language and cultural boundaries in order to provide companies with a persuasive platform on which to build awareness … (Farrelly & Quester, 2005, p.56). McCarville and Copeland (1994) also listed the strong characteristics of sport sponsorship to include the ability to target specific groups, the high level of consumer/fan involvement, the potential for differentiation from the unique characteristics of each sport, and the opportunity to connect with the local community. Bal, Quester, and Plewa (2009) stressed the uniqueness and intensity of sports-related emotions as a platform to connect with consumers while Poon and Prendergast (2006) cautioned that ethical issues in sports (such as drug abuse and corruption) can deter sponsors and shift preference to art and social causes.

Art (or cultural) sponsorship refers to "the creative output from theatre, classical and popular music, dance, opera, and film, as well as the visual arts" (Sylvestre & Moutinho, 2007, p.283). As established in the above spending review, art sponsorship represents a small proportion of industry spending and as such has received very little research attention. This gap in the literature is slowly being addressed (Meenaghan, 2001a; Quester & Thompson, 2000; Sylvestre & Moutinho, 2007). Through focus-group research with consumers as recipients of sponsorship imagery, Meenaghan (2001a) found that the notion of goodwill varies by sponsorship type. Categories such as social and environmental causes, high-brow arts and cultural events were viewed as more philanthropic and therefore recorded higher levels of goodwill. Conversely,

sports and popular arts offered lower levels of goodwill as these were considered by respondents as more commercially driven and in some cases described as “brash, blatant, loud, and obtrusive” (Meenaghan, 2001a, p.198). Sylvestre and Moutinho (2007) also explored cultural sponsorship (from a leveraging standpoint) contending that art sponsorship is distinct in the audience that it attracts, its image, and its community and economic influence.

Given its recent growth, the sponsorship of causes also warrants elaboration. IEG (2014) valued North American cause sponsorship at $1.78 billion while the CSLS reported an increase in Canadian cause sponsorship from $82 million in 2011 to $155 million in 2012 (+86%) (O’Reilly & Beselt, 2013). Johnston (2010) recently examined various managerial variables that influence sponsorship decision-making. Findings from this study showed a strong and growing managerial preference for cause-related sponsorship. To support these findings, Johnston (2010) referenced a recent North American study (Performance Research, 2009, as cited in Johnston, 2010, p.375) that found that 84% of consumers would like to see more spending on their favourite causes or not-for profit organizations (NPOs). Given this evolving preference of cause, the author recommended that other categories (such as sport and art) collaborate with cause-related partners to strengthen their property appeal and potential consumer response. Cause-affiliated marketing is further discussed in section 2.2 of this literature review.

2.1.1.3 Sponsorship and the Promotional Mix

The traditional promotional mix includes four elements: advertising, sales promotion, publicity and personal selling (Crane, Kerin, Hartley, & Rudelius, 2014). The increased investment in sponsorship as a promotional tool has raised questions about where sponsorship fits within this mix. There is growing support for the proposition that sponsorship is a legitimate and distinct

"fifth" element of the promotional mix (Ali, Cornwell, Nguyen, & Coots, 2006; Seguin & O'Reilly, 2007).

In their study of corporate executives involved in sponsorship, Shanklin and Kuzma (1992) commented on the evolving role of sponsorship:

> It defies neat classification as philanthropy or as one of the traditional elements of the promotion mix. As (companies) gain experience, they begin to treat is as a new, distinct element of the mix, an adjunct to rather than a part of other marketing functions. It makes use of all of the other mix tools, yet it is none of them. (p.66)

IEG (2014) tracks the annual growth of advertising, promotions (including public relations, direct marketing and sales promotions) and sponsorship spending in North America and reported that in 2013, advertising spending increased by only 1.8%, sales promotions by 4.3% and sponsorship outpaced all other forms of promotion with a 4.5% increase. IEG (2014) predicts continued growth for all elements in 2014 with North American advertising expected to grow 2.8% (mainly driven by digital media), promotions 4.4% and sponsorship is anticipated to realize similar gain as in 2013 with a 4.3% increase in spending. Given this trend, more attention has been devoted to distinguishing these promotional elements.

Crimmins and Horn (1996) insisted that, "Sponsorship is a means of persuasion that is fundamentally different from traditional advertising. Sponsorship persuades indirectly…sponsorship works by tapping into the elementary mental calculus that is natural in us all" (p.12). Meenaghan (2001a) further compared consumer perceptions of the differences between advertising and sponsorship finding that consumers were generally more favourable toward sponsorship. Sponsors benefits from what Meenaghan referred to as a "halo of goodwill"

(p.209) that engages consumers on an emotional level and leads them to believe that sponsorship benefits society more than advertising. Given the more indirect/ subtle nature of sponsorship, consumers tend to be less skeptical and therefore lower their defense mechanism and are normally more receptive to sponsorship activities. In contrast, advertising was perceived by respondents to have a "halo of commercial intent" (Meenaghan, 2001a, p.210) which raised consumers' suspicions and created a heightened defense to advertising messages. Meenaghan (2001a) contended that this goodwill factor inherent in sponsorship is what ultimately differentiates it from advertising and serves as the main trigger to consumer response. This differentiation is the central thrust of Meenaghan's (2001b) proposed framework for understanding how sponsorship works and is explained as follows; "…(sponsorship) engages the consumer differently by bestowing benefit on an activity (e.g., sports or arts) with which the consumer has an intense emotional relationship" (p.96).

Cornwell, Weeks and Roy (2005) also distinguished these approaches by highlighting that sponsorship requires that a fee be paid in advance for the right to potentially benefit whereas advertising is normally more ownable and controlled by the advertising company. The authors also noted that advertising and sponsorship can also interact as advertising is often used to promote or leverage a sponsorship (Cornwell et al., 2005). In a similar fashion, Sneath, Finney, and Close (2005) suggested that sponsorship be managed as part of a fully integrated marketing communications strategy that involves all consumer interaction.

2.1.2 Managerial Aspects of Sponsorship

An increase in sponsorship investment has inspired a corresponding scrutiny of the managerial aspects of sponsorship. Twenty-two studies exploring the various facets of sponsorship management are summarized (in chronological order from 1992 to 2013) in Table 3 delineating a

number of important contributions and identifying sponsorship trends. These include a transition from tactical to strategic management, a shift from mere exposure and image related objectives to more behavioural and business-oriented goals, more sophisticated management practices and a reinforced emphasis on the need for actionable sponsorship measurement. Following the presentation of Table 3, each of these trends is fully discussed.

Table 3: Summary of Managerial Aspects of Sponsorship Literature

Author(s) (Year)	Purpose of Study	Findings / Conclusions
Shanklin & Kuzma (1992)	To identify the critical issues that corporate leaders must examine in making sponsorship choices.	Companies must do better at setting market-oriented objectives, choosing the right events for their target market, separating sponsorship from philanthropy, making sponsorship a distinct function with the marketing department, and holding it accountable for performance. Objectives are either awareness or image related. Evaluating sponsorship results is the weakest link in sponsorship management. Only about 60% evaluate (normally awareness and image tracking). Marketers should consider several evaluation measures.
Copeland, Frisby & McCarville (1996)	To understand the sport sponsorship process from a corporate perspective.	Corporate Sponsor Profile: most simply layer on sponsorship management to existing marketing workloads; tend to support all levels of sport (grassroots, elite, professional); contract length of 3-5 years; mean number of requests is 484/year, most actively leverage with multiple forms of communication. Selection Criteria: 37 identified, top 3 are exclusivity, increase awareness, reinforce image Post-Event Evaluation: 61.5% indicated that awareness, exposure, and media coverage were key metrics. 46.2% indicated sales. Reasons for Termination: little value, inadequate ROI, change in corporate strategy/direction
Crimmins & Horn (1996)	To provide a guide to improve sponsorship impact on consumers.	Persuasive Impact Equation= strength of link X duration of link X {gratitude felt due to link + % change due to link}

		Guidelines for successful sponsorship: 1/Work Backwards (target market, objectives, message) 2/Check the Fit 3/Start Early 4/Forge a Link 5/Define for Your Target the Meaning 6/Remember that one sponsorship with impact is better than ten without.
Amis, Pant & Slack (1997)	To develop a theoretical framework of achieving a sustainable competitive advantage through a resource-based approach to sport sponsorship.	Sponsorship can provide a sustainable competitive advantage. Four preconditions: 1/heterogeneity (unique congruency and fit) 2/imperfect imitability (difficult to imitate) 3/imperfect mobility (non-tradable /exclusivity) 4/ex-ante limits to competition (high risk, high return)
Farrelly, Quester & Burton (1997)	To investigate the level of integration of sport sponsorship into the broader marketing function through an international comparative study. (North America vs. Australia)	Varying levels of sophistication exist between the two markets. North American firms take a more strategic view of sponsorship, devote greater efforts to integrating sponsorship with other communication elements and activate more aggressively (1-2:1 vs. .50-1:1 ratios). There is a general lack of attention to performance measures with 72.2% of North American firms and 55% of the Australian sample, investing less than 10 cents for every dollar on sponsorship performance measurement.
McCook, Turco & Ruley (1997)	To ascertain the process by which corporations decide upon sport sponsorship proposals.	Decision-making authority depends on the level and cost. Large companies often use agencies as the gatekeeper of proposals. Main objectives includes: awareness/visibility, image enhancement, and increased sales. There is a strong movement toward more business-oriented objectives. Companies consider costs/benefits in their decision-making.
Amis, Slack & Berrett (1999)	To identify the critical components that can render sport sponsorship a distinct competence.	Three key components: 1/perceived customer value 2/competitor differentiation 3/extendability
Miyazaki & Morgan	To assess market	Valuation is a dilemma in sponsorship. This study uses

(2001)	value of corporate sponsorship of the 1996 Summer Olympics.	event study analysis to confirm that the investment marketplace found value in this Olympic sponsorship.
Thjomoe, Olson & Bronn (2002)	To identify the sponsorship decision-making process.	Most viewed sponsorship as being commercially driven (vs. philanthropic). Marketing department leads the process. Sponsorship goals include increased awareness, image enhancement, trade and consumer relations, employee loyalty, increase sales, and competitive advantage. There is little measurement of results.
Crompton (2004)	To evaluate the effectiveness of existing measures of sponsorship.	The further through the communication process an evaluation takes place, the stronger the evidence of sponsorship's contribution to increased sales. Measuring media equivalency: common but flawed Measuring impact on awareness: common but flawed Measuring impact on image: consider trust and credibility Measuring impact on sales: most desirable measure. Consider increase in retail traffic, sales leads and actual sales.
Fahy, Farrelly, & Quester (2004)	To develop a conceptual model of the sponsorship-competitive advantage relationship.	Proposed model of sponsorship-based competitive advantage includes 3 key resources: i) tangible assets (such as financial); ii) intangible assets (brand equity, image transfer), and iii) capabilities (sponsorship management expertise) These 3 resources should be deployed to develop a sustainable competitive advantage (SCA) in sponsorship which drives a SCA in the market and leads to superior performance.
Chadwick & Thwaites (2005)	To examine the practice of sponsorship management from an English (soccer) perspective	Proposed a six stage sponsorship management process; i) objective setting (most cited objectives include generating public awareness, media attention, product awareness, enhanced corporate image and consumer perceptions); ii) screening & selection (proactive decisions based on local proximity, profile/status and existing relationships); iii) contract content (most contracts are 2-3 years) ; iv) execution (58% devote up to 25% of contract value in activation); v) evaluation (media recognition as primary tool); vi) critical success factors (good communication, complete and creative

		activation, club success).
Cornwell, Weeks & Roy (2005)	To propose a theoretical model of how sponsorship works.	Model of consumer-focused sponsorship-linked marketing communications includes the following: i) individual and group factors; ii) market factors; iii) management factors (policies, activation); iv) the mechanics of processing; and v) consumer-focused outcomes of sponsorship (cognitive, affective, behavioural)
Farrelly & Quester (2005)	To explore sponsorship's potential as a co-marketing alliance.	Sponsorship relationships can operate as alliances, providing a strategic platform for mutual gain. The critical success factors include: 1/strategic compatibility 2/goal convergence 3/commitment 4/trust 5/economic and noneconomic satisfaction
Farrelly, Quester & Burton (2006)	To identify the key competencies for successful sponsorship relationships.	Core competencies include: 1/reciprocal commitment 2/sponsorship led brand building capabilities 3/collaborative capabilities
O'Reilly & Madill (2009)	To assess sponsorship evaluation in the literature and in practice.	<u>Literary Contributions:</u> 1/Five areas require metrics: awareness, image, brand effects, media output, behaviour. 2/An extensive range of objectives and metrics are identified. 3/The majority of models focus on awareness. <u>Industry Findings</u>: Most common measurements involve sales / purchase intention and media/exposure.
Smolianov & Aiyeku (2009)	To determine how sponsorship should be evaluated.	Primary corporate goal is to increase sales. In order to do so, the following four objectives should be established: 1/To increase exposure. 2/To enhance consumer processing (in the form of awareness, recall and recognition). 3/To enhance communication effects (attitudes, image,

		purchase intention). 4/To change or increase target audience action (sales, market share, profit) These objectives should be managed in a systematic and sequential manner that reflects the consumer buying process.
Alay (2010)	To validate the Sponsorship Evaluation Scale (SES) as a measure of sponsorship effects on consumer response.	SES (adjustment to Speed & Thompson (2000) sponsorship questionnaire) is a valid and reliable scale to measure consumer response (interest, favour, product use). The eight determinants of consumer response include: status of the event, liking the event, attitude toward the event, sponsor-event fit, attitude toward sponsor, sincerity of sponsor, ubiquity of sponsor, image of the sponsor.
Farrelly (2010)	To identify the drivers of sponsorship termination.	Key reasons for termination include: 1/ strategic vs. tactical intent 2/failure to adapt to the evolution of the relationship 3/conflicting perceptions of contribution / need for proof 4/commitment asymmetry 5/capability gaps Recommended viewing sponsorship as a co-marketing alliance where both parties invest assets and play an active role in the strategic goal setting.
Johnston (2010)	To examine the relationship between differences in managerial status, gender and experience, on sponsorship category preference.	Managerial status, gender and sponsorship experience influence managers' preferences for sponsoring arts, causes, celebrities and sports Senior executives, males and experienced managers have the strongest preference for sport sponsorship. Female managers value sport and art sponsorship equally. Consistent and strong support for cause-related sponsorship across all samples.
Meenaghan (2013)	To review current approaches to sponsorship evaluation.	Sponsorship is now viewed as a more strategic and holistic platform of engagement with multiple stakeholders. There is an increased demand for greater sponsorship accountability. Sponsorship management requires the specification of objectives, budgets, activation programs, and evaluation

		plans. Sponsorship objectives have evolved beyond mere exposure to include experiential consumer engagement. Social media assists in meeting objectives and can be measured through buzz monitoring, sentiment analysis, and online engagement measures. Return on objectives (ROO) and return on involvement are preferred over return on investment (ROI). A "measurement deficit" persists in sponsorship.
Meenaghan, McLoughlin, & McCormack (2013)	To address changes in sponsorship that are impacting performance measurement.	Sponsorship connects a wide range of stakeholders that include: internal staff, trade associations/suppliers /distributors, government/regulators, shareholders, rights holders, media, and customers. There is a transition from short-term "badging" (by sponsors) to long-term "building" (brand engagement and relationships). Basic principles of measuring sponsorship performance include: 1/ specify the role of sponsorship 2/ establish sponsorship objectives 3/ confirm target market(s) 4/ update objectives through life of sponsorship 5/ establish evaluation plan that is rigorous, independent, and credible

2.1.2.1 Strategic Evolution of Sponsorship

In the early stages of corporate sponsorship, a more isolated and tactical approach was used. More recently, organizations are realizing the strategic value of sponsorship and are making efforts to more fully integrate all communication elements (Cornwell et al., 2005; Farrelly et al., 1997, 2006; Farrelly & Quester, 2005). Farrelly et al. (2006) recognized that sponsorship is "in full transformation, from the tactical to the strategic, from the transactional to the relationship-oriented, from the short-term to the long term, and from the periphery to the very core of corporate and brand positioning" (p.1019). In a similar manner, Meenaghan, McLoughlin, and

McCormack (2013) explained that sponsorship is transitioning from short-term "badging" by the sponsor to long-term "building" through brand engagement initiatives such as loyalty rewards, cause-related marketing, and experiential marketing (p.451).

Increasingly, firms are recognizing that sponsorship is in fact a valuable resource that can be leveraged to create a sustainable competitive advantage that impacts consumer response and improves market performance (Amis et al., 1997; Amis et al., 1999; Fahy et al., 2004). In order to secure a distinct competence, there must be perceived value, meaningful differentiation (through creative and integrated activation) and the ability to extend sponsorship impact both internally (employees, corporate culture) and externally (customers, suppliers, community) to a wide range of stakeholders (Amis et al., 1999; Meenaghan et al., 2013).

Sponsorship can be viewed as a co-marketing alliance that provides a "strategic platform to bring parties together to work toward enhancing mutual satisfaction and long-term prospect" (Farrelly & Quester, 2005, p.61). This extended view of sponsorship beyond strictly the sponsor's perspective, requires further planning and consideration. Farrelly and Quester (2005) identified the following critical success factors in co-marketing sponsorship alliances: i) strategic compatibility, ii) goal convergence, iii) commitment, iv) trust, and v) economic and noneconomic satisfaction.

2.1.2.2 Consumer and Business Oriented Objectives

It is recommended that any strategic planning process begin with the establishment of specific and measurable objectives (Crane et. al., 2014). Table 4 captures the most prevalent objectives cited in the sponsorship literature. This review illustrates that awareness and image from both a corporate and product/brand perspective have traditionally been the dominant objectives of

sponsorship. The proven commercial benefits of sponsorship have encouraged more business-oriented objectives with a stronger focus on the bottom-line (i.e., profit and sales). In recognizing that an increase in sales is the ultimate objective of sponsorship, Smolianov and Aiyeku (2009) proposed that objectives are realized in a sequential fashion that parallels the consumer decision-making process. For instance, exposure is needed to create consumer awareness, which is needed to form attitudes and preferences which then drive consumer action (purchase/no purchase). Nicholls, Roslow, and Dublish (1999) supported this view that awareness measures remain valuable as they reflect the consumer path to purchase. The consumer-oriented approach was also adopted by Cornwell et al. (2005) who categorized sponsorship outcomes by cognitive (think), affective (feel) and behavioural (act) factors. This hierarchy of effects concept is central in understanding the effects of sponsorship and is further reviewed in the "Sponsorship Effects" section.

Table 4: Summary of Sponsorship Objectives

Author(s) (Year)	Stated Sponsorship Objectives
Chadwick & Thwaites (2005)	• public awareness • media attention • product awareness • enhanced corporate image • consumer perceptions
Copeland, Frisby, & McCarville (1996)	• awareness • media exposure • reinforce image
Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy (2005)	• cognitive (awareness, image) • affective (liking, preference) • behavioural (purchase intent, purchase commitment, purchase)
McCook, Turco, & Ruley (1997)	• awareness/visibility • image enhancement

	• increases sales
Shanklin & Kuzma (1992)	• current objectives: awareness and image • need more market-oriented objectives
Smolianov & Aiyeku (2009)	<u>Sequential Objectives:</u> • exposure • consumer processing (awareness, recall, recognition) • communication effects (attitudes, image, purchase intentions) • consumer action / purchase
Thjomoe, Olson, & Bronn (2002)	• awareness • image enhancement • trade and consumer relations • employee loyalty • increase sales • competitive advantage

More recently, the sponsorship literature has proposed the transition of objectives toward more experiential ambitions that connect brands and consumers on a more emotional level and over a longer term (Bal et al., 2009; DeGaris, West, & Dodds, 2009; Cahill & Meenaghan, 2013). Examples of such initiatives could include loyalty programs, participative interaction, consumer endorsements, charitable affiliations, and online engagement.

2.1.2.3 Formalized Management Processes

The rapid growth of sponsorship has introduced new complexities and managerial challenges. Copeland et al. (1996) found that large national companies received on average 484 sponsorship proposals per year and that in the majority of cases, sponsorship was simply layered on to existing marketing workloads. These authors highlighted the need for better sponsorship management. In that same year, Crimmins and Horn (1996) responded to this need with guidelines for successful sponsorship management that included: i) work backwards (define

target market, then objectives, then message), ii) check the fit, iii) start early, iv) forge a link, v) define for your target market the meaning (i.e. activate), and vi) remember that one sponsorship with impact is better than ten without.

As a means to navigate increasingly complex sponsorship programs, Chadwick and Thwaites (2005) proposed a sponsorship management model that involves the following five stages: i) objective setting, ii) screening & selection, iii) contract content, iv) execution, and v) evaluation. The authors added that critical to the success of sponsorship management is effective communication between all stakeholders, complete and creative activation, and the success of the sponsored property (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2005). The reviewed literature also highlighted the need for managerial expertise in sponsorship as a distinct function and not a generic lumping with other marketing functions (Copeland et al., 1996; Cornwell et al., 2005; Fahy et al., 2004; Shanklin & Kuzma, 1992). This proposition is in-line with the earlier argument that sponsorship is an additional element of the promotional mix that requires specialized knowledge, skill and experience.

Johnston (2010) recently probed further into the managerial variables that affect sponsorship decisions, finding that gender, management status, and sponsorship expertise can all impact the choice of sponsored categories. Additionally, Johnston (2010) found that senior executives, males and experienced managers have the strongest preference for sport sponsorship while female managers value sport and art sponsorship equally. Interestingly, there was consistent and strong support for cause-related sponsorship across all samples, supporting the observed increase in cause-related sponsorship spending (Johnston, 2010).

2.1.2.4 Sponsorship Evaluation

Sponsorship evaluation remains an area of need in research related to sponsorship management. It has long been reported that measurement is the "grey area" (Tripodi, Hirons, Bednall, & Sutherland, 2003) or "weak link" (Shanklin & Kuzma, 1992) of sponsorship with few sponsors devoting sufficient resources to evaluation (Farrelly et al., 1997; O'Reilly & Madill, 2009; Shanklin & Kuzma, 1992; Thjomoe et al., 2002). Meenaghan (2013) referred to this observation as a "measurement deficit" (p.388) and argued that the extent, nature, and quality of sponsorship evaluation is limited. Shanklin and Kuzma (1992) reported that only 60% of sponsors evaluate sponsorship outcomes, which normally involve awareness and image-related metrics. Farrelly et al. (1997) found that 72.2% (of the 116) of North American firms sampled, invest 10 cents for every sponsorship dollar spent on performance measurement. More recently, the CSLS (O'Reilly & Beselt, 2013) reported that only 2.7% of sponsorship spending was allocated to measurement and that 50.1% of sponsorship programs were evaluated when an agency was involved. In addition to the complete absence of evaluation, O'Reilly and Madill (2009) added that poorly applied measurement tools and the use of inappropriate tools also pose challenges for sponsorship management.

Sponsorship metrics should align with sponsorship objectives (Crane et al., 2014; Meenaghan, 2013). There are many sponsorship objectives so naturally there are also many possible metrics. O'Reilly and Madill (2009) conducted an extensive review of more than forty sponsorship evaluation studies to identify five areas that require measurement: i) recognition, recall and awareness, ii) image and attitude, iii) brand, service or product effects, iv) media output, and v) behaviour. After this review, O'Reilly and Madill (2009) concluded that the majority of evaluation models focus on awareness despite a clear shift to sales-oriented objectives. Given

that awareness metrics are normally easy to collect, easy to understand and involve quantifiable measures, widespread use prevails. These methods are common but faulty as recall and recognition can stem from various other communication efforts thereby making it near impossible to isolate the sole effects of sponsorship (Crompton, 2004; Grohs, Wagner, & Vsetecka, 2004; Meenaghan, 2001b; Speed & Thompson, 2000). Sneath et al. (2005) referred to this challenge as the "spillover effect" (p.375).

Crompton (2004) advocated for improved measurement that better relates to the desired outcomes of sponsorship: "There is a tendency to measure what is easy, namely visibility, rather than what is important, namely impact" (p.273). Thus, as sponsorship objectives progress to behavioural stages so must evaluation measures. Crompton (2004) contended that the further along the communication process an evaluation takes place, the stronger the evidence of sponsorship contributing to sales. O'Reilly and Madill (2009) supported the need for evaluation measures that are better grounded in an understanding of sponsorship; "The evaluation of the tactic, in many cases, is framed using evaluation techniques from advertising and not techniques developed based on the uniqueness and reality of sponsorship" (p.227).

Steyn (2009) drew further attention to the insufficiency of traditional advertising measurement in the new digital era. Steyn (2009) recommended that sponsors monitor on-line consumer engagement and suggested that brand recommendations "could be the ultimate yardstick for measuring sponsorship effectiveness in the digital age" (p.324). Meenaghan et al. (2013) recently recommended buzz monitoring (i.e., mentions online), sentiment analysis (i.e., mining of online opinions and attitudes), and engagement metrics (i.e., social media likes, followers, and fans) as viable approaches to measure online sponsorship effectiveness.

Although challenges remain, the *grey area* of sponsorship evaluation is becoming clearer and is continuing to draw needed academic and practitioner attention. Metrics must align with objectives which are evolving to the behavioural stages of the consumer adoption process and evaluation must be "rigorous, independent, and credible" (Meenaghan et al., 2013).

2.1.3 Sponsorship Effects

Studies have highlighted the need for further research on consumer response to sponsorship (Gwinner et al., 2009; Koo, Quarterman, & Flynn, 2006; McDaniel, 1999; Speed & Thompson, 2000). Over sixty articles pertaining to various aspects of sponsorship effects were reviewed to gain an understanding of current knowledge and directions for future research. The primary theoretical foundation for this line of discovery is the hierarchy of effects model that was originally inspired by classical psychology and developed by Lavidge and Steiner (1961) to predict advertising effects. This model was selected as it reflects the reality that communication efforts (such as advertising and sponsorship) are rarely capable of producing immediate sales but rather move the consumer through a series of stages that ideally lead to eventual purchase. According to this model (Lavidge & Steiner, 1961), consumers begin their path to purchase at the cognitive level, where awareness and knowledge is first required. This is commonly referred to as the *thinking* stage. A deeper psychological connection is then formed at the affective stage of the model where consumers progress to a state of liking or preference for the brand. This second stage is commonly referred to as the *feeling* or emotional stage. And finally, the conative (or behavioural) stage secures consumer conviction and ultimately purchase. This is the *do* level. Lavidge and Steiner (1961) also pointed out that the pace at which consumers progress through these stages can be impacted by the level of product involvement (for instance products with high economic or psychological risk may demand longer processing) as well

individual consumer's involvement levels (such as brand knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, feelings, and experiences). As will be discussed later in this review, gender can also impact this process and is a key variable in this dissertation.

Several variations of the theory of hierarchy of effects have been proposed in the context of sponsorship however the fundamental premise of Lavidge and Steiner (1961) has been preserved. For instance, Speed and Thompson (2000) applied a classical conditioning framework to determine consumer response to sponsorship at three similar levels: interest, favourability and use. In this treatment, the level of consumer response (i.e., interest, favourability, use) was proposed to be dependent on consumers' attitudes toward the sponsored event (i.e., unconditioned stimulus); prior attitudes toward the sponsor (i.e., conditioned stimulus), and the perception of congruence between the event and sponsor (Speed & Thompson, 2000). Meenaghan (2001b) modeled sponsorship response as a progression through the following stages: awareness, favourable disposition, transfer of image value, intent to purchase, and actual purchase. More recently, Alexandris and Tsiotsou (2012) captured the psychological connection between sports fans and their teams in an alternate hierarchy of effects sequence that is initiated through affection and then progresses through stages of cognition and eventual conation. The hierarchy of effects model has been well adopted in the more recent sponsorship literature as a means of assessing consumer response (Alay, 2008, 2010; Chanavat et al., 2009; Mason, 2005; Poon & Prendergast, 2006; Prendergast, Poon, & West, 2010; Sozer & Vardar, 2009; Speed & Thompson, 2000; Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012).

Favourable consumer response is influenced by strong brand equity. Brand equity is an important construct in marketing as it reflects both the financial worth of a brand (i.e., market performance) as well as marketing productivity and consumer impact (Keller, 1993). Keller (1993) explained

that consumer-based brand equity is the differential effect of brand knowledge (derived through awareness and image associations) on consumer response (manifested through perceptions, preferences and behaviour) arising from marketing mix activity. In support of this definition, Keller (1993) stated that; "Perhaps a firm's most valuable asset for improving marketing productivity is the knowledge that has been created about the brand in consumers' minds" (p.2). Aaker (1996) identified the four dimensions of brand equity (that are most prominent in the literature) as: i) brand awareness, ii) brand associations, iii) perceived quality, and iv) brand loyalty. Cornwell, Pruitt, and Van Ness (2001) distinguished between "general brand equity elements" (p.42) (which consist of brand awareness, brand image and corporate image) and "distinctive brand equity elements" (p.42) (which they consider to be brand personality, differentiation, perceived quality and loyalty). This study by Cornwell et al. (2001) contributed that corporate sponsorship managers perceived sponsorship to contribute more to general brand equity (i.e., the cognitive dimension) than distinct brand equity (i.e., the affective and behavioural dimensions). Ross, Russel, and Bang (2008) approached brand equity from a sport service (versus product) perspective and introduced the spectator-based brand equity (SBBE) model. A sample of professional basketball fans was used to empirically support this model that demonstrated that brand associations and brand awareness are relevant constructs in assessing SBBE. These various dimensions of brand equity are integrated into the different stages of the hierarchy of effects model.

Based on the examined literature, Figure 3 was developed to visually capture an understanding of this hierarchy of effects model in the broader context of sponsorship and to guide the following discussion of the sponsorship effects literature. This framework emphasizes the importance of personal consumer (or fan) involvement as a mediating influence on consumer

processing of sponsorship. Involvement is represented as a construct capable of impacting perceptions of fit and the transfer of images as well as all levels of consumer response. The concept of image transfer is highlighted as a key sponsorship principle that also shapes consumer response. The common measures of consumer effect are listed for each of the cognitive, affective, and behavioural stages and the alternate paths of consumer behaviour (i.e., cognitive, affective, behavioural versus affective, cognitive, behaviour) are represented by the directional arrows. Each of these elements is examined next.

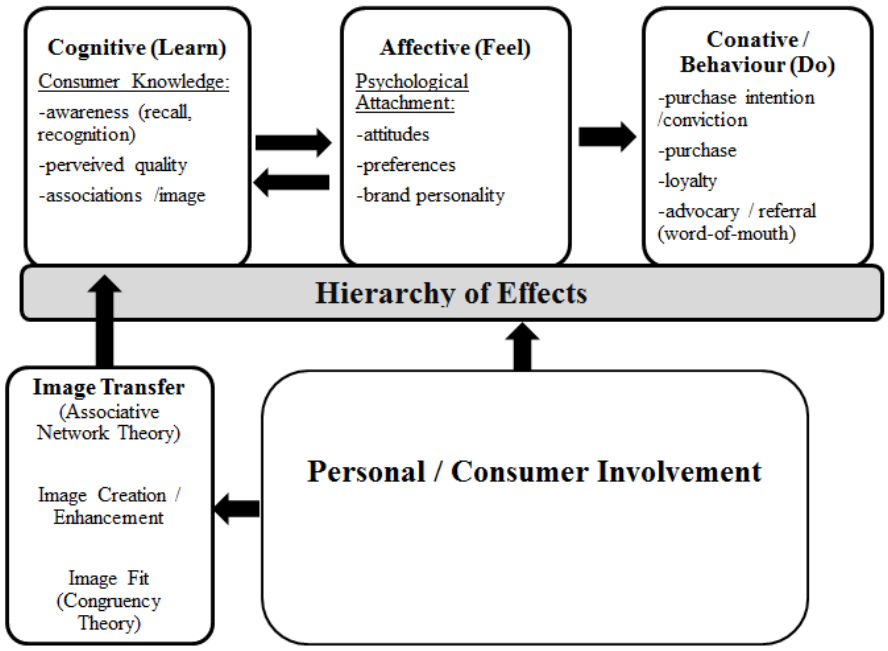

Figure 3: Sponsorship Effects - Framework of Understanding

2.1.3.1 Cognitive Effects of Sponsorship

Consumer knowledge relates to the familiarity, experience, expertise, and use of a product or service and, as such, is an important foundation in consumer response to marketing activities (Lacey, Close, & Finney, 2010). The cognitive stage is about getting brand messages into the

minds of targeted consumers. This is accomplished through awareness (commonly measured as recall and recognition), perceived quality and associations. In a sponsorship environment, cognitive effects are most influenced by the transfer of images between affiliates of sponsorship. As shown in Table 4, most sponsorship initiatives seek some form of image-related outcome. Keller (1993) defined brand image as "the set of associations linked to the brand that consumers hold in memory" (p.2). Memory and the retrieval of information is fundamental in understanding how consumers respond to sponsorship programs and how images are created, enhanced and transferred in the cognitive stage of consumer processing. A theoretical foundation for understanding image transfer is the associative network memory model theory.

Based on the collective explanations and sponsorship applications of the associative network memory model theory from various authors (Chanavat et al., 2010; Chien et al., 2011; Gwinner et al., 2009; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Keller, 1993), the following understanding of this theory is presented. The associative network memory model applied to sponsorship views brand knowledge as a set of nodes and links in consumers' minds. These many nodes store the sponsor's brand information and are connected with links of varying strengths. High brand knowledge and relatedness for instance would strengthen the link (or association) between the sponsor's network of nodes occupied in the consumer's mind. A node is activated from either an internal drive (such as thirst) or an external stimulus (such as a strategically placed vending machine). A strong link will ignite spreading activation whereby other nodes will be retrieved in a connect-the-dots manner. The challenge for marketers at this cognitive stage is to create meaningful nodes with strong links in the minds of their targeted consumers in order to develop strong awareness and relevant associations.

In sponsorship marketing, image transfer takes place when a sponsor becomes linked with a property (event, athlete, cause, etc.) and some of the associations inherent to this property transfer back to the sponsor (Keller, 1993; Grohs & Reisinger, 2005; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Gwinner et al., 2009). Meenaghan (2001b) referred to this process as the rub-off or halo effect while Hickman and Lawrence (2010) introduced the notion of the "pitchfork effect" to illustrate that the image transferred can be either positive or negative. Meenaghan et al. (2013) referred to Tiger Woods and Lance Armstrong as examples of athlete scandals that have generated negative images for affiliated organizations. The main consideration in understanding image transfer is the perceived degree of congruency (also referred to throughout the literature as fit, match, relatedness, relevance, cohesiveness and similarity) between the joined entities (Fleck & Quester, 2007; Olson & Thjomoe, 2011).

Congruency theory (or match-up hypothesis) proposes that sponsorship is most effective when the image of the sponsor matches the image of the sponsored property (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; McDaniel, 1999). Fleck and Quester (2007) believe that some things naturally go well together while others clash and they related congruency to the old adage "birds of a feather flock together" (p.975). Fleck and Quester (2007) suggested that congruence is a two-dimensional construct that involves expectancy and relevancy. In this context, relevancy considers the sensibility of the sponsored association as perceived by the target market and was explained as "the degree to which the information contained in the stimulus favours (or hinders) the identification of the theme or message being communicated" (Fleck & Quester, 2007, p.976). Expectancy takes into account the element of surprise and was explained as "the degree to which an item or information falls into a predetermined schema or a structure evoked by the theme" (Fleck & Quester, 2007, p.976). According to Fleck and Quester (2007) then, an association that

is highly relevant and expected is congruent, while perceptions of unexpectedness and irrelevance renders an association incongruent. There are however different manners in which a match can materialize. McDonald (1991) presented the concept of direct (sponsor's products are directly used in the event) and indirect (image related) sponsorship relevance. In a similar application, Gwinner (1997) discussed functional based (sponsored brand is used during the event) and image based (image of event is related to image of brand) similarities. An example of a direct or functional sponsorship is a tire or oil company sponsoring a car racing event while an indirect or image-based match could take place if a luxury car brand sponsors a prestigious golf tournament.

A significant body of research confirms that a strong sponsor-sponsee fit (either function or image-based) will result in the most effective image transfer and sponsor recognition (Chien et al., 2011; Deane, Smith, & Adams, 2003; Donahay & Rosenberger, 2007; Fleck & Quester, 2007; Grohs et al., 2004; Grohs & Reisinger, 2005; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Johar & Pham, 1999; Koo et al., 2006; McDaniel, 1999; Sozer & Vardar, 2009; Speed & Thompson, 2000). Prendergast et al. (2010) are cautious of confused image transfer and believe that the best type of fit is dependent on the product/service category. Their study found that sponsors of thinking products (which involve more rational processing) benefit further from a functional match whereas feeling products (which tend to be more emotionally influenced) generate more powerful effects on brand attitude with an image-based match. Telecommunications, airlines, and courier services were offered as examples of thinking products while hotels, resorts, and fine dining restaurants were regarded as feeling products (Prendergast et al., 2010). There is also strong support for the proposition that low congruency can be mitigated by articulating (through promotional communication) the fit to the intended

audience (Coppetti, Wentzel, Tomczak, & Henkel, 2009; Olson & Thjomoe, 2011; Sozer & Vardar, 2009). In other words, if the fit is not natural, it can be created through effective sponsorship activation. As an example, a locksmith sponsoring a hockey game may not be considered as a natural or obvious fit. By integrating sponsor messaging into the game, a relevant connection can be presented. In this example, when a player must serve a penalty, the game announcer can state "lock them up with X Locksmithing" as the player enters the penalty box.

The proposition that a moderate degree of incongruity (which involves more effortful processing and possible cognitive arousal) can be equally effective in generating positive cognitive sponsorship response is also supported, albeit to a much lesser extent (Jagre, Watson, & Watson, 2001; Speed & Thompson, 2000). Koo et al. (2006) provided the following perspective: "Despite the research of those who support schema incongruity as the more effective means of stimulating affect, more research has supported the alternative position that schema congruency results in stronger affect on consumer behaviours" (p.82).

Thus far, the idea of image congruence has been constructed according to the perceived fit between the sponsor and the event (or other sponsored property). Prendergast et al. (2010) identified another dimension of congruity; consumer self-congruity. Prendergast et al. (2010) referenced Arnett, German, and Hunt (2003) in explaining that; "when consumers are involved with a sponsored event and identify with this, this self-identification can lead to a strong sense of attachment with the sponsored brand" (p.214). In understanding consumer effects of sponsorship it is therefore essential to extend consideration beyond simply the sponsor-sponsee relationship to include any relevant consumer dimensions that can impact the processing of these efforts.

Personal involvement with a sponsored property (e.g., sport, athlete, event, cause, etc.) can influence consumers' response to sponsorship efforts. Involvement reflects personal relevance and was explained by Hajjat (2003) as "the degree of consumer engagement in different aspects of the consumption episode and is considered to have a primary influence on consumer response" (p.96). Involvement can materialize through personal relevance with a product or service, a response, or a particular issue such as a cause, event, or sport (Hajjat, 2003). Petty and Cacioppo (1979) found that increased involvement amplified the importance of message content in producing either positive or negative persuasion. In examining the role of involvement and donation on cause-related marketing outcomes, Hajjat (2003) applied two routes of persuasion suggested by Petty and Cacioppo (1983): the central and peripheral routes. This understanding of persuasion suggests that highly involved individuals engage in more elaborate processing and carefully scrutinize all relevant information. In contrast, low involvement individuals perceive less relevance and are therefore less likely to invest much effort into processing messages and instead rely on a collection of peripheral cues to form a more general opinion.

Meenaghan (2001b) extended this concept to sports fans by defining fan involvement as "the extent to which consumers identify with and are motivated by, their engagement and affiliation with particular leisure activities" (p.106). There is a mounting trend toward leveraging consumer emotions and passion points as a pathway to engagement (Bal et al., 2009; Cahill & Meenaghan, 2013; Close et al., 2006; Meenaghan et al., 2013). Pham (1992) however found that high emotion can lead to poorer memorization since highly involved fans process game related activities more intensely and are therefore more likely to recognize sponsors but only to a certain point. These same fans prioritize viewing of the game and will reach a point where game concentration will supersede sponsor activity thereby creating a curvilinear effect on sponsorship

recognition. This phenomenon is referred to as the intensity principle and was also revealed in an investigation of Super Bowl viewers by Pavelchak, Antil, and Munch (1988). In this study, the intense emotion of the Super Bowl had a greater impact on viewers than did any advertising efforts. Pavelchak et al. (1988) concluded that "program induced arousal and polarization lead to reduced ad recall" (p.365). In a similar context, Pham's (1992) study also found that arousal has a negative effect on sponsor recognition as an overload of processing demands favoured game details over sponsor messaging. Several studies however have in fact established a positive relationship between event (or sport, team, cause, etc.) involvement and sponsor recall (Grohs et al., 2004; Grohs & Reisinger, 2005; Madrigal, 2001), while other studies have found that involvement effects extend from the cognitive straight through to the behavioural stages (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012; Cahill & Meenaghan, 2013; Close et al., 2006; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Gwinner et al., 2009; Ko, Kim, Claussen, & Kim, 2008; Lings & Owen, 2007; Meenaghan, 2001b). This moderating role of involvement on behavioural responses to marketing stimuli (such as sponsorship) is an important consideration.

2.1.3.2 Affective and Behavioural Effects of Sponsorship

Table 5 summarizes (in chronological order) the cognitive, affective and behavioural effect findings from thirty-three sponsorship studies. Although the majority of early findings support lower-order sponsorship effects, there is growing evidence that sponsorship can also impact consumers on both the emotional and behavioural levels (Bal et al., 2009; Cahill & Meenaghan, 2013; Close et al., 2006; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Gwinner et al., 2009; Ko et al., 2008; Koo et al., 2006; Lings & Owen, 2007; McDaniel, 1999; Madrigal, 2001; Meenaghan, 2001b; O'Keeffe & Zawadzka, 2011; O'Reilly, Lyberger, McCarthy, Seguin, & Nadeau, 2008; Pope & Voges,

2000; Prendergast, 2010; Sneath et al., 2005; Speed & Thompson, 2000; Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009).

In describing the lower-order perspective, Prendergast et al. (2010, citing Koffka, 1935) applied the Gestalt concept of perceptual figure and ground to sponsorship. The authors explained that;

> More often than not the sponsorship arrangement is the ground and the event is the figure. Being the ground, sponsorship does not involve higher-order processing from observers of the event, and so it is more likely to achieve affective rather than behavioural objectives. (Prendergast et al., 2010, p.216).

Prendergast et al. (2010) proceeded, however, to report that an image match for a fine dining restaurant (i.e., a feeling service) had a positive influence on purchase intention and that the traditional *think-feel-act* order of effects can be altered in emotional buying situations to a *feel-think-act* order. Alexandris and Tsiotsou (2012) supported this alternative path of effects in a study that highlighted the significance of activity involvement and team attachment (affect) on behavioural intentions (conation) directly and indirectly through sponsor image and attitude toward sponsorship (cognition). Bal et al. (2009) also contended that the intense drama potential of sports can move consumers to an affective state and provide sponsors with an experiential platform upon which to engage consumers. As will be supported in the following review of sponsorship leveraging strategies, creative and interactive activation is elevating sponsorship to the forefront of events and propelling consumers through all effective stages.

The studies noted in Table 5 substantiate sponsorship as a powerful promotional tool capable of engaging and influencing consumer behaviour at all levels of effect. The influence of involvement (or identification), fit, sincerity, activation, and attitudes towards the events and

sponsors are all noted in this summary of sponsorship effects as is the more recent observation of emotional and online consumer engagement.

Table 5: Summary of Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural Effects Studies

	Findings		
Author(s) (Year)	**Cognitive Stage**	**Affective Stage**	**Behavioural Stage**
Pham (1992)	Involvement has a curvilinear effect on sponsor recall. Arousal has a negative effect on recognition. Pleasure has no effect on recognition.		
Gwinner & Eaton (1999)	When event and brand are matched on an image or functional basis, image transfer is enhanced.		
Johar & Pham (1999)	Sponsor identification is biased toward brands that are prominent in the marketplace and semantically related to the event.		
Pope & Voges (2000)			Corporate image and the belief that a company sponsors a sport(s) significantly influence purchase intention whereas prior brand use has no effect on purchase intention.
Speed & Thompson (2000)	-Sponsor-event fit has a positive influence on consumer response to sponsorship. -Positive interaction between fit and personal event liking. -Perceived sincerity, perceived ubiquity and a positive attitude toward sponsor generate favourable consumer response. -High fit and high event status can have a negative impact on perceived sincerity (as perceived ubiquity increases) and unfavourable consumer		

	response.		
Jagre, Watson, & Watson (2001)	Propose that a moderately inconsistent fit will be viewed more favourably as more elaborate processing increases arousal and recall.		
Madrigal (2001)	Team identification has a positive effect on attitude toward sponsors.		The strength and favorability of the association between a sponsor and a property influences intentions to purchase the sponsor's products.
Meenaghan (2001)	Degree of involvement and level of knowledge determine ability to perceive congruence and transfer image.	Positive emotional orientation ("halo of goodwill") toward a sponsor who supports an activity in which the consumer is heavily involved.	Highly involved fans develop a level of gratitude that leads to purchase intention for low-involvement purchases.
Deane, Smith, & Adams (2003)	Strong perceived fit will enhance image transfer.		
Grohs, Wagner, & Vsetecka (2004)	Event-sponsor fit, event involvement and exposure, effect sponsor recall and image transfer.		
Pitts & Slattery (2004)	Sponsorship advertising increased post-season recognition rates.		No intention to purchase sponsors' products.
Grohs & Reisinger (2005)	Event-sponsor fit has a positive impact on image transfer. Event involvement also impacts (to lesser extent) image transfer.		
Sneath, Finney, & Close (2005)	Event sponsorship leads to favourable perceptions of a	Personal interaction with the sponsor's products during the	After experiencing the sponsored event, consumers are more

	sponsoring firm and its brands.	event enhanced the brand's personality.	likely to consider purchasing the sponsored products.
Close, Finney, Lacey, & Sneath (2006)	An attendee's enthusiasm and activeness in the sport/event being sponsored, along with knowledge of the sponsor's product positively influences the desire that the sponsor be involved in the event.	Event involvement generates positive brand opinions.	A better opinion of the sponsor contributes to increased intentions to purchase the sponsor's products.
Koo, Quarterman, & Flynn (2006)	High fit group had more positive image and higher recognition.	High fit group had more positive brand attitudes.	Cognitive and effective responses positively impact purchase intention.
Donahay & Risenberger (2007)	Sponsors need a functional similarity in order to maximize sponsorship.	Highly involved fans are more responsive.	
Fleck & Quester (2007)	Fit is based on expectancy and relevancy. Seek to surprise with otherwise relevant associations.		
Lings & Owen (2007)			The greater the identification with the sponsored team, the greater the intention to purchase sponsors' products. Team success will moderate team identification and purchase intention.
Gwinner & Bennett (2008)	Brand cohesiveness leads to greater brand knowledge and ability to see event-sponsor fit. Highly identified fans modify their thinking to more easily find fit.	Fit impacts attitude toward the sponsor.	Positive brand attitude influences purchase intentions.

Ko, , Kim, Claussen, & Kim (2008)	Consumer involvement has a direct positive effect on awareness, image, and purchase intention. Sponsorship awareness has a direct effect on corporate image.		Consumer involvement has a direct effect on purchase intention. Sponsorship awareness and purchase intention is mediated by corporate image.
O'Reilly, Lyberger, McCarthy, Seguin, & Nadeau (2008)			Super Bowl promotions have a moderate affect on purchase intention.
Bal, Quester, & Plewa (2009)	Sponsors who implement emotional activation will perform better in terms of recognition…	attitude toward the brand, and…	purchase likelihood.
Coppetti, Wentzel, Tomczak, & Henkel (2009)	Negative effects of low congruency can be mitigated through articulation and audience participation.		
Gwinner, Larson, & Swanson (2009)	High levels of team involvement and strong perceived fit lead to higher levels of image transfer.		Higher perceptions of image transfer are associated with higher levels of purchase intention.
Pope, Voges, & Brown (2009)	Sponsorship announcements immediately "spill over" to perceived brand quality and corporate image while longer term team performance spills over to perceived quality but not image.		
Sozer & Vardar (2009)	Sponsorship produces positive effect for the cognitive dimensions of brand equity (awareness, perceived quality) if there is; i) active sponsor participation; ii) perceived congruence; and iii) positive attitude		

	toward the sponsor brand.		
Tsiotsou & Alexandris (2009)	Highly attached fans are more likely to develop a positive image for team sponsors.		Highly attached fans with a positive sponsor image will exhibit higher intentions to purchase sponsors' products and generate positive word-of-mouth.
Prendergast, Poon, & West (2010)		For thinking services (e.g. courier), a functional match will effect brand attitude whereas an image match will not. For feeling products (e.g. fine restaurant) an image match is more powerful on brand attitude than a functional match.	For thinking services, congruency (neither functional nor image) does not impact purchase intention. {think, feel, act} For feeling services, an image match has a positive influence on purchase intention. {feel-think-act}
Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu (2011)	Sponsorship category relatedness leads to higher brand meaning, consistency and clarity than categorically unrelated sponsorship.		
O'Keeffe & Zawadzka (2011)		Team sponsorship creates positive associations with team fans, fans of the sport and competitor fans.	If all else is equal (price, quality, value), core fans will support sponsors through purchase.
Olson & Thjomoe (2011)	Perceptions of fit are based on i) use of sponsor's products by event participants; ii) match between sponsor's target market and event audience, and iii) attitude similarities (equal liking for both sponsor and sponsored). Poor "natural" fit can be		

	partially overcome with effective articulation.		
Alexandris & Tsiotsou (2012)	Team attachment is positively related to sponsor image and attitudes toward sponsorship (stage 2)	Involvement is positively related to team attachment (stage 1).	Team attachment, sponsor image and attitudes toward sponsorship all positively influence consumer behavioral intentions (stage 3).
Cahill & Meenaghan (2013)		In order to meaningfully differentiate a brand, sponsors should connect with consumers through areas of passion in their lives (e.g., sport, music). Sentiment analysis can be used to measure consumer feelings toward a brand and sponsorship activation.	Encourage consumers to participate in sponsorship programs by developing innovative activation programs that spur brand conversations, recommendations, and engagement. Social media conversations can assist in measuring sponsorship performance.

2.1.4 Strategic Use of Sponsorship: Strategies and Counter Strategies

The final stream of sponsorship knowledge involves sponsorship activation (also referred to as leverage) as well as the counter strategy known as ambush marketing.

2.1.4.1 Sponsorship Activation/ Leverage

IEG defines activation (or leverage) as "the marketing activities that a company conducts to promote its sponsorship" (IEG Lexicon and Glossary, para 1) and they specify that the money spent on activation is over and above the rights fee paid to the sponsored property (IEG, 2010). Papadimitriou and Apostolopoulou (2009) adopted a similar interpretation and added sponsorship "exploitation" (p.91) as a third term used along with activation and leverage. Cornwell (1995) defined *sponsorship-linked marketing* as "the orchestration and implementation

of marketing activities for the purpose of building and communicating an association to a sponsorship" (p.15). This characterization pushes sponsorship beyond mere association to also encompass the incremental marketing activity required to promote such investments. Weeks, Cornwell, and Drennan (2008) provided a more granular view of sponsorship activation by distinguishing between activational communication and nonactivational communication. In this sense, activational communications such as event-related sweepstakes, contests or websites "promote the engagement, involvement, or participation of the sponsorship audience with the sponsor" while nonactivational communications such as on-site signage and sponsor name mentions are more "passively processed by the sponsorship audience" (Weeks et al., 2008, p.639). The basic premise throughout these definitions of activation is the act of bringing target market awareness to acquired sponsorship rights.

There is widespread belief that sponsorship without any form of activation is of little value and that it is essential to invest additional resources in order to realize the full potential of sponsorship marketing (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Crimmins & Horn, 1996; DeGaris et al., 2009; O'Reilly & Lafrance Horning, 2013; Papadimitriou & Apostolopoulou; 2009; Quester & Thompson; 2001; Sylvestre & Moutinho, 2007; Weeks et al., 2008). Crimmins and Horn (1996) directly stated that: "If the brand cannot afford to spend to communicate its sponsorship, then the brand cannot afford sponsorship at all" (p.16). Without added effort to bring recognition to a sponsorship property, a sponsor can only hope that their target will notice them and independently make the necessary connection. This is a risky proposition. Some of the top scholars in marketing have included aspects of activation in their definitions of sponsorship. For example, Cornwell and Maignan (1998, p. 12) emphasized the need for activation in providing this view on sponsorship:

> On the basis of the definitions found in the literature, we propose that sponsorship involves two main activities: (1) an exchange between a sponsor and a sponsee whereby the latter receives a fee and the former obtains the right to associate itself with the activity sponsored, and (2) the marketing of the association by the sponsor. Both activities are necessary if the sponsorship fee is to be a meaningful investment.

Effective activation can assist in the realization of specific sponsorship goals (e.g., awareness, favourability, image, consumer engagement, sales), can strengthen sponsor differentiation and can help brands breakthrough increased promotional clutter (Cornwell et al., 2001; DeGaris et al., 2009; O'Keefe, Titlebaum & Hill, 2009; Quester & Thompson, 2001; Papadimitriou & Apostolopoulou; 2009; Sylvestre & Moutinho, 2007). Fortunato (2013) added that activation programs can also include social responsibility initiatives to further assist corporations in reaching their objectives (in particular image enhancement).

The benefits of activation are well recognized but the ideal cost of activation is more obscure. Several researchers suggest that proficient sponsors will at minimum match their sponsorship investment with similar sums dedicated to adequate activation (Farrelly et al., 1997; Meenaghan, 1991; Quester & Thompson, 2001; Seguin & O'Reilly, 2007; Séguin, Teed, & O'Reilly, 2005). The ratio of expenditures to activation is known as the activation ratio and has been reportedly increasing in conjunction with the growth of sponsorship. According to IEG data, in 2001 sponsors expected to spend $1.20 on activation activities for every dollar spent on sponsorship fees, a 1.2:1 ratio. In 2012, this estimation of the activation ratio increased to 1.7:1 (IEG, 2013). The CSLS observed lower activation levels in Canada, however also indicated significant growth from a 0.57:1 ratio in 2011 to a ratio of 0.75:1 in 2012 (O'Reilly & Beslet, 2013). In Canada

therefore, for every dollar spent on sponsorship, an additional .75 is invested in promoting this association. A very wide range of activation ratios are observed in practice and throughout the literature; from 0:1 to 8:1 (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004; Davies & Tsiantas, 2008; Farrelly et al., 1997; O'Keefe et al., 2009; Quester & Thompson, 2001; Seguin & O'Reilly, 2007). Activation ratios in the range of 1-2:1 are most common and appear to be acceptable by industry standards (Farrelly et al., 2007; IEG, 2013; O'Keefe et al., 2009; Séguin & O'Reilly, 2007).

Although the activation investment level is a key consideration, how that money is spent is of equal importance. Cornwell et al. (2005) stated that "both the weight and the nature of leveraging activities are central to communication efforts achieved in sponsorship" (p.36). There are countless ways that a sponsor can activate their acquired rights in order to maximize sponsorship outcomes. These range from mass awareness efforts such as advertising and public relations, to event signage, sampling, hospitality, retail sales programs, and various on-line and digital promotions. The only limitations appear to be the extent of creativity and resources that an organization is able or willing to exert in developing activation programs. Table 6 summarizes common sponsorship activation tactics referred to throughout the reviewed sponsorship literature.

Table 6: Summary of Sponsorship Activation Methods

Advertising (TV, Radio, Magazines, Newspaper, Brochures, Outdoor)	Digital/Social/Mobile Media
PR/Media Coverage	On-Line Campaigns (Websites, Blogs)
Signage/Logo Placement/Banners/PA Announcements /Logo on Scoreboard or Uniforms	On-Site Hospitality/Events/Client Entertainment / VIP Passes
In-Store Displays /Point-of-Sales Promotion/ Coupons	Off-Site Events
Samples / Product-Event Integration/ Product Demonstrations	Sponsorship Tie-In Promotions

On-Pack Signage / Company Vehicle Signage	Direct Marketing
Licensing / Merchandise	Business-to-Business Communication
Giveaways/Contests/Sweepstakes/Games/ Memorabilia/Premiums	Internal Marketing/Employee Programs
Player Sponsorship / Meet & Greets / Product Use	New Products/Services
On-Site Personnel/ Research / Consumer Interaction	Cause-Related Tie-Ins
Event-Based Distribution	

Most sponsors implement a multi-method approach that is fully integrated with all other elements of their marketing communication program (Ladousse, 2009; O'Keeffe et al., 2009; Papadimitriou & Apostolopoulou, 2009; Sneath et al., 2005). IEG (2013) reported that public relations and social media are the two most popular forms of leverage (used by 89% and 88% of the sample respectively), followed closely by internal communications (86%), hospitality (81%), traditional advertising (77%), online promotions (69%), business-to-business communications (60%), on-site sampling (51%), direct marketing (48%) and sales promotions (32%). Most recent trends in activation include digital, mobile and on-line mediums. Sponsor websites and social media are offering an alternative means of connecting with and engaging sponsorship audiences (Cahill & Meenaghan, 2013; Meenaghan et al., 2013; O'Keefe et al., 2009; Weeks et al., 2008;). Online consumer engagement offers a reciprocal outlet of exchange as "online social media such as forums, wall-postings, instant messaging, tweets, blogs, vlogs, wikis, podcasts, and product reviews, all play a vital role in broadcasting consumers' opinions and biases" (Steyn, 2009, p.318).

Davies and Tsiantas (2008) distinguished between high and low involvement brands in recommending ideal leveraging strategies. By applying their Optimal Leveraging Activity (OLA) model to six national sponsors of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games, they found that high

involvement brands (such as banks and airlines) spent more on activation and implemented multiple activities in order to increase awareness, differentiate themselves and strengthen long-term consumer relationships. Low involvement items (such as beverages and dairy products) were more concerned with obtaining trial and as such, favoured the use of product integration, distribution and point-of-sale promotions. In this case, quality leveraging was emphasized over the mere quantity of activation spending.

Sylvestre and Moutinho (2007) directly linked business objectives and ideal leveraging strategies. A case study of five corporate culture sponsors in the United Kingdom exposed advertising and public relation programs as the ideal leveraging tactic for building brand awareness. Personal selling and public relations were recommended to strengthen customer and community relations (Sylvestre & Moutinho, 2007).

Recent investigations of activation strategies have revealed a shift from simple logo placement and short-term awareness objectives to more experiential leveraging that seeks to connect with targeted consumers and offers the ability to form long-term emotional ties through sponsorship (Bal et al., 2009; Cahill & Meenaghan, 2013; Choi, Stotlar, & Park, 2006; Meenaghan et al., 2013; O'Keefe et al., 2009; DeGaris et al., 2009). Choi et al. (2006) referred to more consumer-oriented sponsorship activation and recommended that activation be elevated beyond "one-dimensional logo viewing" (p.72). Ladousse (2009) detailed Lenovo's global sponsorship of Formula One and the Olympic Games. Although specific investment levels were not revealed, Lenovo's extensive list of integrated activation techniques were described. These included encompassing on-site hospitality, web initiatives, on-site programs and product integration, advertising and public relations (Ladousse, 2009). Lenovo further raised the activation bar by being the first ever sponsor to design the Olympic torch for the 2008 Beijing Games. According

to Ladousse (2009), Lenovo's efforts were rewarded with increased worldwide brand awareness of 11 percentage points. NASCAR offers another high profile example of well integrated and emotional sponsorship activation. NASCAR fans are well known for their support and loyalty to their sport and sponsors alike. DeGaris et al. (2009) argued that regardless of favourable fan attitudes, NASCAR sponsorships still require active promotion to generate awareness and response to the sponsorship. The authors maintained that "sponsorship tie-ins possess emotional equity among clearly defined target markets (e.g. NASCAR fans) which marketers can leverage into more effective sales promotions" (DeGaris et al., 2009, p. 90).

Bal et al. (2009) compared the experiential activation platforms of four sponsors of the 2008 Australian Open. They found that the brand that activated with a full on-site spa with complementary treatments and samples was most relevant to its target market and performed best in terms of on-site recognition (92%), attitude towards the brand and purchase likelihood. Bal et al. (2009) proposed that the emerging view of activation is to provide consumers with rich emotional experiences; "By offering them opportunities to meet their favourite athletes, a chance to watch a game from the commentators' box, or even by partnering with broadcast replay moments, sponsors can enter into a fundamentally affectively driven relationship with the event audience" (p.375).

Sponsorship leveraged packaging (SLP) is another form of activation that has received very little research focus. Woodside and Summers (2011) defined SLP as "depicting the sponsored property's image, logos or symbols on the sponsoring brand's packaging" (p.87). An example of SLP is Coke including Olympic imagery on their products or a company affixing a pink-ribbon image to their packaging when affiliated with a breast-cancer charity. Woodside and Summers (2011) recently examined how consumers process SLP and found poor general recall. When the

sponsored property was cause-related (vs. sport) however, a positive impact on consumer response was noted. This study concluded that response to SLP is directly impacted by the choice of sponsorship property, brand loyalty, and other activation efforts by the sponsor. Woodside and Summers (2011) also noted that SLP is different than cause-related marketing (CRM). In the later, a contribution is made to the cause based on sales while in SLP the package is a medium to promote awareness of the sponsorship (with no corresponding donation).

2.1.4.2 Ambush Marketing

Another broadly endorsed benefit of sponsorship activation is as a means of combating ambush marketing (Burton & Chadwick, 2009; Crompton, 2004; Séguin et al., 2005; Shani & Sandler, 1998; Tripodi, 2001). Sandler and Shani (1989) defined ambush marketing as: "…the efforts of an organization to associate itself indirectly with an event in an effort to reap the same benefits as an official sponsor" (p. 9). Seguin, Lyberger, O'Reilly, and McCarthy (2005) described ambush marketing as "activities that lead to benefits without the cost" (p.217). Tripodi and Hirons (2009) referred to ambush marketing as "the cancer of sponsorship; an aggressive strategy employed by firms to indirectly align themselves to an event (at the expense of official sponsors), without purchasing the event's sponsorship rights" (p.121). Burton and Chadwick (2009) highlighted the evolution of ambush marketing over the past 25 years in proposing a renewed definition that offers a more neutral outlook of ambush marketing as a legitimate alternative to sponsorship and a legitimate competitive practice:

> "Ambush marketing is a form of associative marketing, utilized by an organization to capitalise upon the awareness, attention, goodwill, and other benefits, generated by

> having an association with an event or property, without that organization having an official or direct connection to that event or property" (p.305).

Sandler and Shani (1989) emphasized that ambushing is typically well planned and funded and shared well documented cases of ambushing such as Wendy's ambushing McDonald's during the 1988 Winter Olympics as well as American Express targeting Visa, and Quality Inn attacking Hilton. Tripodi and Hirons (2009) studied the leveraging strategies of three official sponsors of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games (Nike, Westpac Bank and Ansett Airline) as well as the impact from competitive ambush tactics of three corresponding non-official sponsors (Adidas, National Australian Bank and Quantas Airline). According to these researchers, all sponsors "leveraged their investment in a credible fashion to continuously remain in the public conscience" (Tripodi & Hirons, 2009, p.133). Ambushers however were equally aggressive and committed significant resources in an attempt to neutralize the impact of sponsors' efforts. Ambush tactics in these cases were diverse and included such activities as athlete sponsorships, TV and outdoor advertising, PR events, celebrity endorsements and event-related internet campaigns. In all three cases, Tripodi and Hirons (2009) reported that the official sponsors' investment in activation paid off in the form of superior recognition as official sponsors. As a result of their efforts, the three ambushers also experienced increased awareness albeit at inferior levels than the sponsors. An important finding from Tripodi and Hirons (2009) was the quick tail-off effect observed at the end of the Games. Once activation activities were reduced (or ended) following the Olympics, sponsorship awareness levels were "quick to evaporate" (Tripodi & Hirons, 2009, p.134). It is reasonable, therefore, to link activation activity to successful sponsorship awareness. It was also evident through this study of three distinct product categories, that

leveraging strategies must adapt to different business scenarios. Factors such as competitive pressures, market leadership, and past Olympic associations were all relevant in the choice of activation programs as well as the recorded recognition levels throughout this study.

Most mega events rely heavily on sponsorship revenue. The success and profile of these events draw interest from many companies who want to benefit from an association with these events, however category exclusivity and rising sponsorship fees can restrict commercial access and unintentionally encourage ambush marketing (Davis, 2012; Seguin et al., 2005; Tripodi & Hirons, 2009). As Davis (2012) explained, "Protecting official sponsors by policing the activities of ambush (or stealth) marketers is a complex undertaking, and there are more holes than there are plugs in the rules governing sponsor protection" (p.216). Davis (2012) proceeded to list several examples of Olympic ambushers including: Kodak sponsoring the 1984 Olympic TV broadcast (Fuji was an official sponsor), Nike sponsoring a news conference with the 1992 U.S. basketball team (Reebok was an official sponsor), a 1996 British sprinter who wore contact lenses with Puma's logo on them (Reebok was the official sponsor), and MasterCard using catering trucks to serve coffee around the 2010 Vancouver venues (Visa was the official sponsor). Burton and Chadwick (2009) acknowledged that ambush efforts have evolved over time, from predominantly broadcast campaigns and venue advertising, to more creative and integrated associative marketing efforts.

Although these activities can be confusing to consumers, in most cases they are not illegal (Grady, McKelvey, & Bernthal, 2010). Consumer perceptions of ambushers are mixed and for companies that choose to implement such strategies, they consider this a legitimate form of

competitive marketing and are convinced that the benefits outweigh the potential risks and moral implications (Burton & Chadwick, 2009). In a large study involving consumers from Canada, France and the United States during the 2000 Olympic Games, Seguin et al. (2005) found that the majority of consumers consider ambush marketing as unethical and are confused by sponsorship clutter, often unable to properly distinguish between official sponsors and ambushers.

In reviewing ambush marketing findings, Grady et al. (2010) recognized two types of ambush marketing. The first simply involves an attempt to associate with a desirable event without paying to be a sponsor. The second view of ambush marketing is more in line with the common criticism of this practice. True to the common nature of the term ambushing, this second understanding is a more aggressive approach that purposely intends to mislead the audience to believe that the ambusher is in fact an official sponsor. There is ongoing debate as to whether ambush marketing is a sound competitive strategy or an immoral business practice. Grady et al. (2010) believe that past perceptions of ambush marketing as an unethical business practice are shifting to less negative and more accepting views as an alternative to purchasing sponsorship rights. Alternatively, reported consumer confusion and distain for this growing trend of ambushing, is driving the development of anti-ambush strategies (Burton & Chadwick, 2009; Seguin et al., 2005). Burton and Chadwick (2009) suggested that past counter-strategies have been mainly reactive including "name and shame" (p.310) public relations campaigns and legal action. These reactive measures have been largely ineffective (and often benefit the ambusher with added exposure) thus given rise to more proactive strategies such as creating competitive

marketing-free zones and adding broadcast to sponsorship packages to eliminate this common opportunity for ambushers.

A further anti-ambush strategy is the enactment of event-specific legislation to deter ambush attacks. The Olympic Games are among the most coveted sport properties and as such are also the target of the most sophisticated ambushing efforts (Davis, 2012). Since the 2000 Sydney Games, all Olympic host countries enact such legislation in an effort to protect official sponsors and deter ambush attempts (Burton & Chadwick, 2009; Grady et al., 2010; Tripodi & Hirons, 2009). Grady et al. (2010) are critical of such legislation submitting that it favours the Olympic movement and alienates local businesses by limiting commercial freedoms. Burton and Chadwick (2009) are cautiously optimistic about this legislative movement however they continue to advocate that the best defense against ambush marketing is a combination of proactive strategies and effective sponsorship activation.

This first section of literature review has examined the main streams of sponsorship research. Grounded in this broad understanding of sponsorship, the next section elaborates on the emergence of charities and causes in the practice and study of sponsorship.

2.2 Cause and Cause-Related Sport Sponsorship

This section delves deeper into the various ways by which corporations associate with charitable organizations and causes. Corporate goodness is first defined as the focus of this inquiry begins to funnel towards the emerging area of cause-related sport sponsorship. Examples of the increasing blending of sport and cause are detailed. The core sponsorship concepts reviewed in

the preceding section are extended here to cause sponsorship. While the basic premises remain (such as objectives, fit, sincerity, involvement, activation and consumer effects), cause associations entail a number of unique characteristics that are reviewed in this section.

2.2.1 Defining Corporate Goodness

North American companies invested close to $2 billion dollars in cause sponsorship in 2013 (IEG, 2014). This figure represents an increase in cause spending of 4.8% over 2012 and does not take into account all of the other ways that companies partner with charitable causes. Along with increased corporate investment there has been significant scholarly effort dedicated to marketing promotions incorporating some form of social dimension. Consumers increasingly expect and demand business organizations to demonstrate good corporate citizenship (Fortunato, 2013; Geue & Plewa, 2010; Hajjat, 2003; Roy & Graeff, 2003; Plewa & Quester, 2011; Springfield, 2009; Watt, 2010). Pope (2010) referred to "ethical consumerism" (p.244) and maintained that strong evidence confirms that consumers want to buy ethical brands with shared values. According to Pope (2010), consumers want brands to be transparent, accountable and "committed to me" (p.244). Some sources propose that the terrorist attacks on the United States on September 11th, 2001 ignited a surge in philanthropic interest and activities (King, 2006; Lachowetz & Gladden, 2003). Another common cited trigger for an increase in profit and non-profit alliances is an observed decrease in public funding of non-profit organizations (Bernardo, 2011; Doherty & Murray, 2007; Taylor & Shanka, 2008). Regardless of the specific motives, it is evident that goodness has become a requirement of marketing.

There are many ways that for-profit companies can engage in corporate goodness. Several terms are introduced, applied and interrelated throughout the marketing and management literature. Carrigan and Attalla (2001) noted that there is yet to be a definitive definition and agreed upon

understanding of what exactly is social responsibility of marketing. Corporate social responsibility (CSR), corporate community involvement (CCI), philanthropy, strategic giving, social marketing, cause marketing , cause-related marketing (CRM) and cause or social sponsorship are all legitimate business practices for which the boundaries are becoming increasingly blurred (Pharr & Lough, 2012; Pope, 2010). Table 7 presents the accepted definitions of these principal forms of corporate social responsibility. Figure 4 was developed to visually portray the relationships between these social business strategies and to guide this presentation of reviewed literature.

Table 7: Definitions of Various Forms of Corporate Social Responsibility

Concept /Terminology	Definition / Explanation
Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)	A management philosophy that recognizes that business and society are interconnected and organizations need to give back and be accountable to society. Managing companies in a socially responsible and ethical manner (Geue & Plewa, 2010; Lacey, Close, & Finney, 2010; Pharr & Lough, 2012; Séguin, Parent, & O'Reilly, 2010)
Corporate Community Involvement (CCI)	"Umbrella term within which corporate philanthropy, sponsorship and cause-related marketing are positioned" (Seitanidi & Ryan, 2007, p.247)
Corporate Philanthropy	Donation to a cause with no, or little expected return (Polonsky & Speed, 2001; Séguin, Parent, & O'Reilly, 2010)
Strategic Charitable Giving / Corporate Social Investment	Giving with the intention of some form of return on donation. A means of driving both profit and social welfare (Mullen, 1997; Polonsky & Speed, 2001; King, 2006; Watt, 2010)
Social Marketing	Direct strategy to demonstrate social responsibility and address social and health related issues. Benefits of social marketing tend to be intangible (such as improved health and reduction of disease) with a primary focus on behavioural change that increases personal and/or social welfare while secondarily also improving brand awareness, equity and loyalty for the supporting brand (Pharr & Lough, 2012). "The adaptation and adoption of commercial marketing activities, institutions

	and processes as a means to induce behavioural change in a targeted audience on a temporary or permanent basis to achieve a social goal (Dann, 2010, p.151).
Cause Marketing	"A business strategy that helps an organization stand for a social issue(s) to gain significant bottom line and social impacts while making an emotional and relevant connection to stakeholders" (Cone Inc. as cited in Washington & Miller, 2010, p.35).
Cause-Related Marketing (CRM)	"The process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives" (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988, p.60). "An agreement between nonprofit and for-profit organizations to promote a product that provides benefit for the cause through increasing awareness and financial contributions from sales" (Harvey & Strahilevitz, 2009, p.26). "…CRM campaigns try to persuade consumers to buy a certain product by promising to donate something in return to a specific cause" (Hajjat, 2003, p.94). "…conditional form of corporate giving" (Chang, 2012, p.318). Benefits of CRM are focused primarily on the charity/cause and the business partner while benefits to society are secondary (Pharr & Lough, 2012).
Cause-Related Sport Marketing (CRSM)	Implementing CRM initiatives in the marketing of sport (Lachowetz & Gladden, 2003; Pharr & Lough, 2012).
Cause/Social Sponsorship	Demonstrating CSR through sponsorship of social causes or environmental issues (Geue & Plewa, 2010; Lacey et al., 2010). Firm's donation to a cause is not dependent on company sales. The sponsorship fee is paid at the beginning of the partnership and any consumer effect follows sponsorship implementation and activation (Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Chang, 2012).
Cause-Related Sport Sponsorship (CRSS)	Sponsorship that creates a mutually beneficial link between a sport event, corporate sponsor, and benefitting charity (Lachowetz & Gladden, 2003; Irwin et al., 2003). Integration of CSR and sport sponsorship (Watt, 2010) Virtually all participatory sports events are now linked to a charitable cause (King, 2006; Watt, 2010).

Figure 4: An Overview of the Various Forms of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

CSR and CCI are umbrella terms that capture a corporate commitment to manage in a socially responsible manner and to contribute to societal welfare (Geue & Plewa, 2010; Lacey, Close, & Finney, 2010; Séguin, Parent, & O'Reilly, 2010; Seitanidi & Ryan, 2007). Séguin et al. (2010) offered an important distinction in highlighting that CSR is a business philosophy rather than specific social action. These authors stated that CSR is "the belief that an organization needs to give back to society" (Séguin et al., 2010, p.205). This high level of commitment serves as an important guide for more actionable corporate giving.

Corporate philanthropy is the purest form of giving as it involves an outright donation with no expected commercial return (Polonsky & Speed, 2001; Séguin et al., 2010). Social marketing adopts commercial marketing activities to influence behavioural change (such as increased physical activity, decreased smoking, elimination of drinking and driving or driving and texting, etc.) and improve personal or social welfare (Dann, 2010). Social marketing initiatives are designed to benefit society and any corporate returns (such as improved awareness, image and equity) are secondary (Pharr & Lough, 2012). Increasingly, social partnerships are evolving

from short-term campaigns into long-term strategic partnerships in order to serve the dual purpose of business and society (Broderick, Jogi, & Garry, 2003; Seitanidi & Ryan, 2007). When corporations seek tangible gain, giving becomes an investment rather than mere charity. King (2001) suggested that most large corporations now employ business-driven approaches to charitable contributions as they seek more tangible return.

Strategic giving can take the form of cause-related marketing (CRM) or cause sponsorship. A widely cited definition of CRM originates from Varadarajan and Menon (1988) who describe CRM as the "process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives" (p.60). Similarly, Hajjat (2003) explained that "…CRM campaigns try to persuade consumers to buy a certain product by promising to donate something in return to a specific cause" (p.94) and Chang (2012) reinforced that CRM is a "…conditional form of corporate giving" (p.318). King (2001) referred to CRM as "a new form of subsidized philanthropy" (p.116).

Cause sponsorship is different from CRM in that the sponsorship fee is paid prior to any consumer-oriented promotion related to the cause. Consumer transactions are not a requirement for charitable contribution nor do they influence the amount of the donation (Chang, 2012; Polonsky & Speed, 2001). The sponsorship fee is normally paid well in advance in order to make a cause-related event possible (Cornwell & Coote, 2005). In sponsorship, there are no guaranteed sales but rather an onus on the part of the sponsor to activate these partnerships in a manner that will have a positive effect on their targeted consumers (Geue & Plewa, 2010; Lacey et al., 2010). In comparing consumer response to CRM versus cause sponsorship, Chang (2012) found that consumers appreciate that both approaches contribute to society but that sponsorship

generates more positive attitudes as it is viewed as less sales and profit-oriented than CRM. Chang (2012) believes that sponsorship is less risky than CRM stating that "consumers hold ambivalent attitudes towards CRM but positive attitudes towards sponsorship" (p.331). Plewa and Quester (2011) also recognized the subtlety of sponsorship as a significant advantage over CRM stating that sponsorship is "often perceived as less commercially aggressive and faces less consumer resistance and scepticism" (p.303). Polonsky and Speed (2001) suggested integrating CRM and cause sponsorship to maximize consumer impact. Building on the contested notion that sponsorship mainly influences lower order effects (such as awareness, image and attitudes) while the conditional purchase requirement of CRM has a more profound impact on the behaviour stage, Polonsky and Speed (2001) recommended that CRM be used to leverage sponsorship activities. Implementing such a dual approach could therefore more effectively move consumers through all levels of effect. Fortunato (2013) presented the case of MasterCard and Major League Baseball (MLB) partnering in a cause-affiliated sponsorship involving the charity Stand Up To Cancer. In this case, the sponsor (i.e., MasterCard) developed activation programs ("Eat, Drink, and Be Generous" in 2011 and "Dine and Be Generous" in 2012) where donations were made to the affiliated charity (i.e., Stand Up To Cancer) when consumers used their MasterCard when dining at restaurants. In addition to this CRM component, this sponsorship also included an array of other activation programs such as advertising, celebrity endorsements, stadium promotions, on-field presentations, and online and social media initiatives.

As in the MLB example above, a quickly emerging area of CSR is the blending of cause and sport in the form of either CRSM or CRSS. Sport has proven to positively contribute to society while also serving as an effective vehicle for corporations to display their socially responsible

behaviour (Fortunato, 2013; Neale, Filo, & Funk, 2007; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Roy & Graeff, 2003). Walker and Kent (2009) declared that the sport industry is "a lens through which to see the larger social perspectives of symbolism, identification, community, and sociability due in part to the strong affective connection of sport fans" (p.746). Watt (2010) also championed sport as the "greatest social movement in the world today" and strongly promoted the enormous "opportunity for sponsors to engage consumers and communities using their sport sponsorship activities to further the cause of social development projects" (p.224). Roy (2011) stated that the "unique characteristics of the sport industry make cause marketing participation compelling, if not expected for sport organizations" (p. 21) while Watt (2010) supported industry predictions that in the next decade no sponsorship deal will go through without some element of CSR. Walker and Kent (2009) further portrayed the sport industry as the ideal setting for CSR given the deep emotional connection that athletes, teams and events can have with local communities. The sponsorship of local grassroots events is increasingly observed as the costs of elite (and often saturated) properties rapidly rise and sponsors seek a stronger connection with local audiences (Plewa & Quester, 2011).

CRSM is the application of CRM in the marketing of sport. As an example, Nike's *Livestrong* program was a CRSM initiative as donations by Nike to the Lance Armstrong Foundation were tied to consumer purchase of *Livestrong* merchandise such as apparel, shoes or equipment (McGlone & Martin, 2006; Pharr & Lough, 2012). Cause-related sport sponsorship (CRSS) integrates CSR and sport sponsorship by linking sport, corporate sponsorship and a benefitting charity with no conditional purchase (Irwin et al., 2003; Lachowetz & Gladden, 2003; Pope, 2010; Watt, 2010). The successful unity of sport, cause and marketing can reinforce emotional connections with consumers and as will be reviewed in the "Cause Sponsorship Effects" section,

such active affiliations can also influence positive consumer behaviour (Lachowetz & Gladden, 2003).

2.2.2 Sport as a Gateway to Goodness

While the sport industry has faced scandal (doping, violence, corruption, etc.), it remains an ideal outlet to promote social causes and charitable giving. The blending of sport and cause is widely observed throughout major sport leagues. Professional leagues promote expanding community outreach programs (such as *NBA/WNBA CARES* and *MLS WORKS*) that address a variety of important societal issues including education, youth development, health and wellness (NBA, 2013; MLS, 2013). The National Hockey League (NHL) founded *Hockey Fights Cancer* in 1998 to support national and local cancer research institutions, children's hospitals, player charities and local cancer organizations. This program is a component of the NHL's *Biggest Assist Happens Off the Ice* campaign and has raised more than $12.8 million (NHL, 2013). Similarly, Major League Baseball (MLB) supports cancer research with the *Going to Bat Against Breast Cancer* program launched in 2009 (MLB, 2013) and the National Football League (NFL) contributes to the American Cancer Society with their *A Crucial Catch* initiative (NFL, 2013). The WNBA has raised more than $2.5 million through *WNBA Breast Health Awareness Week*, is tackling diabetes with the *Dribble to Stop Diabetes* program, and seeks to inspire women and young girls in the areas of leadership and physical activity (WNBA, 2013). Most individual teams also promote their own foundations (such as the Ottawa Senators Foundation, the Maple Leaf Sports & Entertainment Foundation, the Montreal Canadians Children's Foundation, etc.) to assist with community causes. These are but a few examples of the many important cause initiatives being championed by professional sport.

Categorizing these various initiatives within the expanding area of CSR in sport is becoming increasingly challenging. Walker and Kent (2009) categorized CSR activities for professional sport teams as: i) philanthropy, ii) community involvement, iii) youth educational initiatives, and iv) youth health initiatives and concluded that these activities have a significant impact on organizations' reputation and consumer behaviour. Pharr and Lough (2012) relied on five distinguishing variables (locus of benefit, objectives, target market, voluntary exchange, and marketing perspective) to classify forty-three professional sport cause-related programs as either social marketing, CRM or community outreach. This study did not include a category of social/cause sponsorship in their classification of these programs. Pharr and Lough (2012) identified significantly more instances of social marketing (51.2%) than CRM (18.6%) or community outreach (30.2%) at the professional sport level and called for more research to understand the impact of such cause-related programs in sport consumer behaviour (Pharr & Lough, 2012).

Spectator-based events represent an important opportunity for CRSS and have been found to favourably impact spectators' impressions of sponsors (Close & Lacey, 2013; Irwin et al., 2003; Walker & Kent, 2009). Table 8 details several of these well recognized partnerships at major spectator-based events throughout Canada, corroborating reports that sport, sponsorship and charity alliances are increasingly occurring (Roy, 2011; Walt, 2010). *Pink the Rink* / *Pink at the Rink* is also a growing movement throughout the sport of ice hockey. Reportedly initiated as an annual event to increase awareness and raise funds for breast cancer research through women's NCAA hockey teams, *Pink at the Rink* efforts have effectively spread to all levels of both female and male hockey (Staffieri, 2012).

Table 8: Examples of Canadian Spectator-Based Cause-Linked Sport Events

Sport Event	Corporate Sponsors	Charity / Social Cause
Canadian Formula 1 Grand Prix (2003)	Official: Mercedes-Benz Partners: McDonalds, RUSH Media: 8 sponsors Services: 2 sponsors	32 different charitable organizations and events
Canadian Curling Association -Tim Horton's Briar -Scotties Tournament of Hearts -Ford World Championships	Season of Champions Sponsors: Kruger Products, Tim Hortons, Ford, M&M Meat Shop, The Dominion, Capital One, Bell, World Financial Group, AMJ Campbell Van Line, Great Western Brewing	Sandra Schmirler Foundation
Grey Cup Festival (2013)	Premier: Mosaic, Harvard Broadcasting, Pilsner, Richardson Pioneer, Telus Festival: Dash Tours	School Literacy and Nutrition Program Regina Food Bank Chris Knox Cancer Foundation
Calgary Stampede (2013)	Champion: Agrium, Bell, BMO, Budweiser, Coca-Cola, Enmax, GMC, TAWA, TransAlta Stockmen's Club: 22 sponsors	Calgary Stampede Foundation (funding community facilities, youth programs and agriculture opportunities)
RBC Canadian Open (2013)	Title: RBC Premier: Shaw Business Platinum: BMW Partners: 5 sponsors	Children's Wellness in Canada (RBC and Golf Canada committed to raising $5 million over 5 years.)
Rogers Cup (2013) Men's	Title: Rogers Presenting: National Bank Platinum: Buick, Casino Montreal, Corona, Emirates Airline, Iris Gold: FedEx, La Press, Rolex, SAQ, Tenniszon Silver: 6 sponsors Bronze: 8 sponsors Broadcast: 5 sponsors	Grassroots Tennis in Canada

Rogers Cup (2013) – Women's	Title: Rogers Presenting: National Bank Platinum: Buick, Casino Montreal, Emirates Airline, Iris Gold: Lindt, Province of Ontario, Rexall, Rolex Silver: 7 sponsors Bronze: 6 sponsors Broadcast: 4 sponsors	Grassroots Tennis in Canada
CHL Memorial Cup 2013	Title: MasterCard Associates: BMO, Old Dutch, Post Shreddies, Subway Affiliates: Kal Tire, Jack Kink's Beef Jerky Partners: 13 sponsors Media: 2 sponsors	Championship Legacy Funding (supporting KidSport Saskatoon and Dream Brokers)
IIHF Women's World Hockey Championships 2013	Premier Marketing Partners: Esso, Nike, RBC, Telus, TSN International: 20 marketing partners National: 3 marketing partners Local: Acart Communications	Event Charity: Do It For Daron (youth mental health awareness) Team Canada Charity: Livestrong (Nike and Sport Check's *Fight With Us* Program)

At the grassroots level, virtually all participatory sport events are also now linked to a charitable cause creating opportunities for simultaneous engagement in two meaningful activities (i.e., sport and cause) and for interaction among participants, not-for profit organizations and sponsors (Filo et al., 2010; King, 2006; Taylor & Shanka, 2008; Wood, Snelgrove, & Danylchuk, 2010). Wood et al. (2010) identified four distinct segments of event fundraisers: i) non-identifiers (no connection to either the cause or the sport), ii) cause fundraisers (connection to the cause), iii) road warriors (connection to the sport), and iv) event enthusiasts (connection to both the event

and the sport). In this study, event enthusiasts raised the most funds and were loyal to the event for longer periods of time. Participation in charity-related sporting events has been found to be especially popular with females (Bennett et al., 2007) for whom involvement (i.e., have fun, raise money for charity, get fit) and status (i.e., prove to others and myself that I can do it) are primary motivating factors for participation (Taylor & Shanka, 2008). Bennett et al. (2007) affirmed the powerful influence that charity affiliations can have on consumer behaviour and showed that involvement with the cause and/or sport can induce participants to pay a higher entrance fee. In fact, 81% of respondents in this particular study were willing to pay an additional entrance fee for events affiliated with a cause. Bennett et al. (2007) focused on the purchase of event participation and did not extend consideration to purchase behaviour of sponsor products.

In Canada, sponsoring someone in an event is among the most common forms of donation as 30% of Canadians contributed in this manner in 2010 (Turcotte, 2012). Table 9 offers examples of participant-based CRSS events hosted throughout Canada. In addition to these main events, there are countless community-based *for the cure* themed sporting events such as curl for the cure, spike for the cure, putt for the cure, tri for the cure, swim for the cure, kick for the cure, paddle for the cure, etc.

Table 9: Cause-Related Participant-Based Sport Events

Sport Event	Corporate Sponsors	Charity / Social Cause
Becel Heart & Stroke Ride for the Cure	Title: Becel Corporate Challenge: The Printing House, Zoll Official: SunRype	Heart & Stroke Foundation
Celebrity Hockey Classic Series	10 Sponsorship Levels: Gold: Nurse Chevrolet	Easter Seals

	Accommodation Sponsor: Holiday Inn Beverage Sponsor: PepsiCo	
CIBC Run for the Cure	Title: CIBC National: New Balance, East Side Mario's, Running Room, Egg Farmers of Canada, Canpar Courier, Revlon Suppliers: Dole Sparklers, Lipton Green Tea, Country Harvest	Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation
Embridge Ride to Conqueur Cancer	National Title: Embridge Ontario Sponsors: Credit Suisse, Sugoi, KPMG, Roche, Sporting Life, Sobeys, Norco, Steam Whistle, East Dell, Chantler's Media: 7 sponsors	The Princess Margaret Cancer Foundation
Golf for the Cure (by Golf Canada)	Presenting: Subaru Media: Best Health Pink: Investors Group, Molson Canadian 67	Canadian Cancer Society (breast cancer)
Hockey Helps the Homeless	National: Great West Life , London Life, Canada Life	Hockey Helps the Homeless
Shoppers Drug Mart Run for Women	-Shoppers Drug Mart -Moving Comfort -Running Room	Women's Mental Health Organizations across Canada
Shoppers Drug Mart Weekend to End Women's Cancers	Title: SDM / Pharmaprix Official: CIBC, Rogers, Toronto Blue Jays, Johnson & Johnson, Trade Secrets, Suzy Shier, Browns, Reitmans, Royal Media: 5 sponsors	Princess Margaret Cancer Foundation
Shoot for a Cure (hockey, curling, moto-sport and horse racing events)	Hockey: over 50 sponsors Curling: 7 sponsors Moto-Sport: 2 sponsors Horse Racing: 1 sponsor	Canadian Spinal Research Organization
Telus Walk to Cure Diabetes / JDRF Ride for	Title: Telus National: OneTouch	Juvenile Diabetes Research Foundation

Diabetes Research		
Toronto Women Run Series	Major: Mizuno Associate: Goodlife Fitness, Running Room, Foxi, eska, eload Contributing: 6 sponsors Official: 9 sponsors	Pediatric Oncology Group of Ontario (POGO)
Walk for Miracles	Title: Walmart	Children's Hospitals

Table 9 is simply a sample of the growing number of participant-based CRSS events occurring throughout Canada. These include a wide range of sports, sponsors, and affiliated causes. The strategic considerations required to successfully unite these multiple properties are discussed in the following section.

Despite some muddling in attempting to label specific cause-related activities, all levels of sport are increasingly aligning with causes that generate mutual gain for all involved stakeholders. The popularity of this trend is creating clutter and increased competition for coveted sponsorship deals (Taylor & Shanka, 2008). Breast cancer is often the charity of choice as Orenstein (2003) referred to it as "the queen of all good causes" (p.89). The pink ribbon associated with breast cancer awareness is an instantly recognized symbol that many firms wish to leverage. *Pink washing* is a term used to describe insincere motives by corporations seeking to exploit disease for profit and has many advocates cautioning businesses to *think before they pink* (Harvey & Strahilevitz, 2009 King, 2006; Orenstein, 2003; Twombly, 2004).

2.2.3 Characteristics of Cause Sponsorship

This next section of review reconsiders the main elements of sponsorship (namely objectives and benefits, fit, involvement, and activation) from a cause perspective. Much of this knowledge is

consistent with findings presented in the previous review of sponsorship literature. Attributes unique to the cause environment are highlighted.

2.2.3.1 Objectives and Benefits of Cause Sponsorship

The characteristics of cause sponsorship are essentially the same fundamental principles as presented in the preceding sponsorship review. There are however additional layers when engaging in cause-related activities. Associating with a relevant social cause can offer firms many possible returns. Similar to other kinds of sponsorship (such as sport), cause sponsors can create a meaningful point-of-differentiation and enjoy an enhanced image, positive publicity, favourable attitudes and increased revenue (Hajjat, 2003; Meyer, 1999). In cause sponsorship however, sponsors play a crucial role in raising awareness and funds for social causes, generating strong goodwill and brand character with a targeted audience, providing consumers with a sense of personal fulfillment and building strong emotional and spiritual bonds among various stakeholders with shared common values (Hyllegard et al., 2011; Menon & Kahn, 2003; Meyer, 1999). Pope (2010) defended corporate interests in explaining that "social sponsorship is being delivered by brands that are listening to their customers, as well as their own passions, ethics and concerns. Do they or should they feel guilty that they are helping their brands along the way? Absolutely not" (p.248). Despite this, corporate and social benefits must be balanced in the sponsorship of causes. Consumers understand and accept that sponsors will benefit from their involvement in a cause, but if the corporation is perceived to benefit more than consumers or society, then corporate trustworthiness risks being eroded (Geue & Plewa, 2010; Haley, 1996). Consumers also demand transparent communication in detailing corporate charitable efforts, including the amount donated as well as the length of involvement with the cause (Cone, 2010a). In the earlier example of MasterCard's sponsorship of the MLB and Stand Up To Cancer,

MasterCard's on-field donation presentation was witnessed by thousands of spectators and broadcast viewers (Fortunato, 2013). Sixty-one percent of Americans do not believe that companies currently provide enough information about their cause-related programs (Cone, 2010a).

The benefits to the nonprofit sector distinguish cause from other types of alliances. Cone Communications is a commonly cited industry authority on corporate social responsibility and cause marketing. The 2010 Cone Nonprofit Marketing Trend Tracker (online survey among 1,055 US adults) revealed that as a result of social and corporate partnerships, 59% of consumers are more likely to buy a product associated with a cause, 50% of consumers are more likely to donate to the nonprofit, 49% are more likely to participate in an event for the nonprofit, and 41% are more likely to volunteer for the nonprofit (Cone, 2010b). Consumers are inspired by corporate good deeds and want companies to give them the opportunity to buy a cause-related product, learn about a cause, change their behaviour, donate to a nonprofit, advocate for an issue or volunteer (Cone, 2010a).

Meyer (1999) highlighted that cause branding is different than merely associating with a social cause as the former requires a more long-term stakeholder-based approach that requires a substantial amount of sophistication, time, effort and money to fully integrate social issues into business strategies, brand equity, and corporate identity. Meyer (1999) concluded that essentials for cause branding success include: i) synergy (i.e., fit) between the company and the cause, ii) deep, senior-level commitment, iii) sufficient resources, iv) a sustained, multi-year commitment, v) open and mutually beneficial relationships, vi) lots of communication, vii) measurable results, viii) walking the talk, and ix) innovation.

2.2.3.2 Fit in Cause Sponsorship

Congruency in sponsorship was examined earlier in this literature review. The need for synergy between the company and the cause is also well supported throughout the cause literature (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Berger et al., 1999; Haley, 1996; Menon & Kahn, 2003; Roy, 2010; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Zdravkovic, Magnusson, & Stanley, 2010). Becker-Olsen and Simmons (2002) explained that "good deeds that are unrelated to the firm's image risk being uninteresting and are unlikely to encourage much thought" (p.287). Geue and Plewa (2010) also stressed the need for fit as they argue that "cause sponsorship is an effective medium through which a firm can communicate its social responsibility to key stakeholders, if the right cause is sponsored" (p.236). Roy (2011) supported the need for congruent linkages between sponsor and cause and found that such synergy increases both perceived sincerity and attitudes toward the sponsor. Close and Lacey (2013) found that event-sponsor fit improved consumer perceptions of the sponsor and that the integration of the sponsor's CSR efforts improved consumer attitudes and purchase intentions. In this investigation by Close and Lacey (2013), congruity was significant for the sponsor but did not impact consumers' attitudes toward the event itself.

Fit can stem from different sources. Nan and Heo (2007) defined fit in CRS as "the overall perceived relatedness of the brand and the cause with multiple cognitive bases" (p.66). Becker-Olsen and Simmons (2002) defined native (or natural) fit as "the extent to which the firm and the sponsored cause are perceived as fitting together, independent of program details or communications that may create a fit between organizations" (p.287). Created fit, as implied above, is produced and communicated through marketing efforts. Zdravkovic et al. (2010) also referred to created *prominence fit* as the "manner in which the cause relationship is presented and

explained to potential customers" (p.158) while also identifying natural *marketing strategy fit* as "similarity in segmentation, targeting, and positioning" (p.158). Lachowetz and Gladden (2003) identified resonance as a necessary condition for successful CRSM programs and referred to a required fit with the target market as well as congruency between the values of the sponsor and the values of the cause. Fit is a multidimensional concept that can stem from product dimensions, consumer bases, corporate or brand images and values, or personal involvement (Menon & Khan, 2003; Nan & Heo, 2007).

2.2.3.3 Involvement in Cause Sponsorship

Similar to the notion of fit, involvement is a multidimensional construct that is generally captured under various labels such as identification, relevance, interest, importance, personal investment, engagement or even passion. Zaichkowsky (1985) defined involvement as "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests" (p.342) and validated a twenty-item scale to measure consumer involvement levels. Hyllegard et al. (2011) separated interest from involvement in a study that found that participants' interest in a social cause positively influenced brand attitudes but negatively predicted purchase intention. Involvement in this study, however, had a more positive influence on both attitudes and purchase intentions. These authors described interest in terms of importance, relevance, excitement, meaning, appeal, fascination, value and need, while involvement with a social cause was based on more tangible actions such as time and money donated, CRM purchases, participation in fundraising events, advocating for the cause, and personal impact.

In cause-related activities, the term *emotional involvement* commonly emerges. Chang (2012) defined emotional involvement as "a state of psychological engagement associated with emotional responses" (p.321) and contributed to findings that social causes emotionally engage

consumers. In that study, levels of emotional involvement were based on responses to three statements: i) *I felt warm-hearted about the even,*; ii) *I was moved thinking about the event,* and iii) *I became emotional thinking about the event* (Chang, 2012, p.327).

Funk and James (2001) addressed the emotional and psychological engagement through sport with the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM). This model conceptualizes the various levels of connection between sport fans and a sport or team in terms of four distinct stages along a vertical psychological continuum: awareness, attraction, attachment, and allegiance. *Awareness* is the beginning of the relationship when an individual first learns that a sport/team exists with no particular favourite. The second level is *attraction* when strong awareness guides an individual to confirm a favourite sport/team although preference at this stage is not necessarily enduring. An emotional and psychological connection begins to form at the *attachment* phase when the sport/team becomes increasingly central to the individual who assigns important emotional, symbolic and functional meaning to the relationship. The top of the model is *allegiance* which is characterized by strong and lasting loyalty of a truly committed fan. Funk and James (2001) drew attention to the similarity of the PCM to the hierarchy of effects theory and explained that the later focuses on outcomes of behavioural change while the PCM captures the psychological relationships that are formed between entities. These authors encouraged widespread application of the PCM in guiding research efforts beyond sport fans and highlighted sponsorship and charitable relationships as sound choices for investigation. Filo et al. (2010) incorporated the PCM (specifically the attachment stage) when examining the factors that contributed to participants' perceptions of event sponsors at a cause-related marathon event. Event attachment was based on functional knowledge, emotional importance, and symbolic expression. Results of this study revealed that participants' recreational and charity motives

contributed to event attachment while charity motives and event attachment in turn impacted sponsor image. Both sponsor image and event attachment contributed to intentions to purchase the sponsors' products (Filo et al., 2010).

Through qualitative interviews, Haley (1996) determined that consumer understanding of organizational sponsorship of advocacy messaging is based on perceptions of the organization, perceptions of the issue and perceptions of self. Respondents' personal investment in the chosen cause heightened their attention to corporate efforts and fostered favourable opinions of the sponsoring organization. A participant in this investigation effectively captured the affirmed importance of cause relevance by stating: "I'll support a company that supports things I believe in" (p.30).

Pearsall (2009) found that consumers' ties with specific sports, events or causes have a pervasive influence on sponsorship response and that this inherent passion can prevail over challenges such as a harsh economy. This on-line study involving 1,000 US shoppers also revealed that consumers are favouring sponsorships with a goodwill component and are encouraged most by cause associations. Pearsall (2009) concluded that: "For sponsors, a paradigm shift towards the support of causes is critical to combat the prevailing current perceptions; however these tie-ins must be authentic in nature or today's consumer will rebel both with their hearts and their wallets" (p. 32-33).

The belief that involvement is a strong predictor of consumer response is strongly endorsed through cause research (Bennett et al., 2007; Broderick et al., 2003; Chang, 2012; Hajjat, 2003; Haley, 1996; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Pearsall, 2009; Walker & Kent, 2009). Cone (2010a) reported that 54% of consumers will purchase from a company that supports a cause that is

personally relevant to them over a company that is associated with a cause that has less personal meaning. In addition, an overwhelming 89% of consumers believed that a company should consider what is most important to their target market in choosing a social issue to champion (Cone, 2010a).

More closely tied to cause-related sport events, Bennett et al.'s (2007) examination of motivations for participation in cause-related sporting events revealed that involvement with both the cause and the sport significantly influence participants' behaviour. Extending the concept of involvement from sport participation to spectatorship, Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa, and Hirakawa (2001) found that attendees (both male and female) of the Women's World Cup in 1999 were motivated by a desire to support women's opportunity in sport. This suggestion that involvement can be based on the gender of sport being played (or fan in attendance) will be further explored in the final section of this review. Gender support is a significant consideration in this dissertation exploring the role of gender in consumer response to CRSS.

Walker and Kent (2009) also assessed the influence of CSR on consumers in the sport industry and identified team identification as an important predictor of fans' assessments of reputation and patronage intentions. In this case, CSR's influence significantly increased four patronage dimensions (repeat purchase, word-of-mouth, merchandise consumption, and media consumption) as the respondents' level of team identification increased. Walker and Kent (2009) also found that highly identified fans are more confident in assessing their team and will seek out positive information to affirm their beliefs while dismissing information that contradicts their positive views. This desired level of loyalty could reasonably be classified as the allegiance stage of the PCM reviewed above.

2.2.3.4 Cause Sponsorship Activation

As with all forms of sponsorship, cause sponsorship must be adequately activated in order to reap the true rewards of association (Meyer, 1999; Pearsall, 2009; Pope, 2010). Watt (2010) recommended that the integration of CSR into sponsorship evolve beyond inanimate signage and that "every point of contact provides an opportunity to live out the company's values and principles while making a meaningful contribution to social development" (p.223). Marketers are cautioned, however, not to interrupt customers but rather to share in social concerns by adopting a wide range of consumer-facing and interactive communication channels using a tone that is enabling and empowering rather than instructional (Pope, 2010). Pope (2010) testified that: "Consumers who are more committed to mindful consumption are encouraging brands to demonstrate their social credentials provided that they are genuinely meant and credibly and transparently delivered" (p.244). Pope (2010) offered examples of American Express, Google and Nike to propagate the power of digital and social media in inspiring mass involvement and cooperative social behaviour.

The 17th Annual 2010 Cone Cause Evolution Study revealed that 90% of consumers want companies to tell them how they are supporting causes and recommends that companies continue to innovate to ensure that their activation programs offer "an original consumer experience" (Cone, 2010a, p.27). This report identified forward-thinking trends that include deeper engagement through social media that also encourages offline charitable action, the use of contemporary new media tools (e.g., Quick Response codes) to heighten interaction and information exchange in-store, the integration of social messaging into popular entertainment (e.g., sitcoms and dramas), and the use of social math to transform hard data into soft and

compelling stories. The need to sufficiently activate cause sponsorships and the various possible methods of leverage are consistent with the previous full review of sponsorship activation.

2.2.4 Cause Sponsorship Effects

In reviewing existing CSR literature, Walker and Kent (2009) identified three main streams of research: i) theoretical / conceptual, ii) motives-oriented, and iii) outcomes-oriented. Their review found that the overwhelming majority of work to-date has concentrated on the conceptual understanding and possible motives of CSR. Less attention has been reportedly devoted to the outcomes of CSR, in particular relating to consumer response to cause-related initiatives. Albeit limited (in comparison to other streams), the outcomes-focused research that has been conducted thus far, does suggest a positive link between social initiatives and consumer response (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002**;** Berger et al., 1999; Broderick et al., 2012; Chang 2012; Close & Lacey, 2013; Filo et al., 2010; Hajjat, 2013; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Irwin et al., 2003; Lacey et al., 2010, Nan & Heo, 2007; Ross, Patterson, & Stutts, 1992; Roy & Graeff, 2003; Walker & Kent, 2009). Cornwell and Coote (2005) promoted the power of cause-related marketing stating that it "locks in customers and creates brand loyalty by offering them the chance to have a positive effect on issues they feel they have in common with the company's policies" (p.271).

The Cone Cause Evolution Study (2010a) also found that consumers, in particular mothers, continue to expect, welcome and respond favourably to corporate cause efforts. Specifically, this on-line survey (of 1057 adult Americans) found that:

- 85% of consumers have a more positive image of a product/company when it supports a cause that they care about,

- 41% of Americans claim to have bought a product because it was associated with a cause (vs. 20% in 1993), and
- 80% of consumers are likely to switch brands to one that supports a cause (with price and quality being equal).

In this same study, Cone (2010a) singled out *Moms* and *Millennials* (aged 18-24 at time of the survey) as particularly receptive to cause efforts and described Moms as the "epitome of the cause consumer" (p.13) given their strong purchasing power, socially-minded youth influencers, and virtually unanimous support for cause-related initiatives (p.13):

- 95% find cause marketing acceptable (versus 88% average),
- 93% are likely to switch brands (versus 80% average), and
- 92% want to buy a product that supports a cause (versus 91% average).

Building on the thirty-three sponsorship studies presented in Table 5, Table 10 summarizes the cognitive, affective, and behavioural effect findings of an additional fifteen studies that pertain specifically to cause-related marketing or cause sponsorship scenarios.

Table 10: Summary of Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural Effects Studies in Cause Affiliated Marketing

	Findings		
Author(s) (Year)	**Cognitive Stage**	**Affective Stage**	**Behavioural Stage**
Becker-Olsen & Simmons (2002)	High-fit sponsorships built brand equity while low-fit diluted equity.	A nonprofit source resulted in more favourable response than a company source.	

Berger, Cunningham, & Kozinets (1999)	Attitude toward the cause and perceived involvement increased information processing and persuasion.	Female students had more positive attitudes and higher purchase intentions for brands that use cause-related advertising than did male students.	
Chang (2012)		Attitudes toward social sponsorship were more positive than attitudes toward CRM.	
Cone (2010a)	85% of consumers have a more positive image of a company when it supports a cause they care about.	95% of Moms believe that cause marketing is acceptable (vs. 88% average)	-80% of consumers (and 93% of Moms) are likely to switch brands to one that supports a cause (price and quality being equal). -81% (and 92% of Moms) want to buy a product that supports a cause. -41% of respondents claim to have bought a product because it was associated with a cause (vs. 20% in 1993).
Cornwell & Coote (2005)		Participants' years of partaking in the charity-based sporting event, increased their identification with the nonprofit.	Consumers' identification with the charity had a positive effect on sponsorship-linked purchase intentions (based on five PI measures).
Filo, Funk, & O'Brien (2010)	Charity motives and event (cause-related marathon) attachment positively contributed to sponsor's image.		Sponsor image and event attachment favourably contributed to purchase intention of sponsor's products.
Hajjat (2003)	When there was a match between cause involvement and donation levels (high/high, low/low), CRM was superior to ordinary marketing in generating		

	favourable consumer response (attitudes and purchase intentions).		
Hyllegard, Yan, Ogle, & Attmann (2011)		-Consumers were more likely to form positive attitudes toward an apparel brand when the amount of the donation was clearly communicated. -Participants who were more involved (vs. interested) in social causes, had more positive attitudes toward the brand.	-Participants who were more involved (vs. interested) in social causes, had stronger purchase intent. -Gender did not influence brand attitudes but did predict purchase intention. Females were generally more involved and recorded stronger intentions to purchase sponsors' brands.
Irwin, Lachowetz, Cornwell, & Clark (2003)	-Consumers' attitudes, beliefs, and purchase intentions were positively impacted by Fed Ex' sponsorship of the St. Jude Classic professional golf tournament. -Female participants' response on all measurements was stronger than males.		
Lacey, Close, & Finney (2010)	Product knowledge and perceptions of CSR were key variables that strengthened attendees' commitment to an event sponsor and purchase intention.		
Nan & Heo (2007)	Brand/cause fit only impacted attitudes of brand conscious consumers.	Regardless of fit, CRM had a positive impact on attitudes toward the company versus no CRM.	
Ross, Patterson, & Stutts (1992)		Women had a more positive attitude than men toward both the firm and the cause that used CRM.	CRM had a positive influence on purchase intention, particularly among women and respondents who had children.
Roy & Graeff (2003)	-90% of respondents had a more positive image of a business or		78% of consumers agreed that cause-related marketing

	professional athlete that supports community charities or causes. -Females were more likely to have a positive image of a local team if they partnered with causes.		activities influence their purchase intentions.
Simmons & Becker-Olsen (2006)	High fit (natural or created) between sponsor and cause reinforced sponsors' positioning.	High fit created favourable brand attitudes.	High fit enhanced firm's equity (intention to consider, purchase or recommend) for up to a year.
Walker & Kent (2009)		-NFL teams' CSR activities had a strong and positive impact on the organizations' perceived reputation. -More highly identified fans, had more confident opinions of the team and were less influenced by CSR than less identified fans.	-CSR was a significant predictor of word-of-mouth and merchandise consumption. -CSR's influence increased repeat purchase, word-of-mouth, and both merchandise and media consumption as respondents' level of team ID increased.

These cause-related studies support earlier propositions that sponsorship can effectively motivate consumers at all levels (cognitive, affective, and behavioural). The inclusion of cause properties augments stakeholder factors, heightens the impact of involvement and furthers consideration for congruency. Gender effect was considered in six of the above studies, each of which suggests that female consumers are more receptive and affected by cause efforts (Berger et al., 1999; Cone, 2010a; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Irwin et al., 2003; Ross et al., 1992; Roy & Graeff, 2003).

2.3 Gender Considerations in Sponsorship Marketing

This section focuses on gender considerations in sponsorship marketing. The evolution of gender research briefly introduces this section. The significance of the lucrative female consumer market is then established, followed by an examination of key gender differences that can impact consumer behaviour. The relevance of cause and the importance of sport are presented as growing interests and priorities for women before concluding this section with a review of past studies that have measured the influence of gender on sponsorship response. It is important to note that the identified gender traits and behaviours are generalizations based on the findings of mainly North American studies. Behaviour can certainly be influenced by many individual characteristics and factors beyond biological gender. It is therefore understood that there are always exceptions to the presented findings.

2.3.1 Gender Evolution and Gender Research

The social status and roles of both women and men continue to evolve as does the corresponding study of each respective gender. Given the increased marketing priority devoted to the lucrative female consumer segment, the following review is primarily grounded in the evolution of the female gender. It is generally acknowledged that women are increasingly powerful as decision-makers and influencers. In business, politics, sports, and social settings, women are transforming the landscape and blurring traditional gender boundaries. Gender roles however were not always so fluid and the opportunities enjoyed by the modern women are the result of relentless effort and sacrifice of women past.

Bettany, Dobscha, O'Malley, and Prothero (2010), argued that feminist views are integral to the understanding of consumer behaviour and the practice of marketing. There are many different forms of feminism as well as conflicting approaches to feminist philosophy. A broad

understanding of the key milestones of this important social movement is necessary to effectively contextualize the current evolved role and powerful influence of women. According to Haslanger, Tuana, and O'Connor (2011), "feminism is both an intellectual commitment and a political movement that seeks justice for women and the end of sexism in all forms" (Stanford On-line Encyclopedia of Philosophy, Topics in Feminism, para.1). Drawing on social theory, Brace-Govan (2010) provided an overview of women's political activism over what is commonly referred to as the three waves of feminism. The first wave of feminism, occurring around the turn of the 19th century (1880s to 1920s), was successful in gaining voting rights for women as well as access to education and physical activity (Brace-Govan, 2010). After a lull in action between the two world wars, feminism was revived with a second wave in the late 1960s and 1970s with renewed passion for power, control and equality in important matters such as higher education, employment, sports and on the domestic front. Recognizing that identity is more than just gender, third wave feminism considers the social conditions of women (such as race, ethnicity, class, nationality and religion) in a continued quest for equality (Brace-Govan, 2010; Haslanger et al., 2011). Advertising scholars also refer to consumer feminism or commodity feminism as the commercialization of feminist ideals (Goldman, Heath, & Smith, 1991; Brace-Govan, 2010; Howard, 2010). Motivated by market share and corporate profits, the concern through the 1970s and even into the 1990s, was that marketers were misrepresenting or trivializing important feminist accomplishments in an effort to differentiate their offerings and sell more products (Goldman et al., 1991). Howard (2010) contended that despite a "narrow view of women's liberation" (p.155), the tension between feminist activism and corporate culture led to a significant shift in women's images in popular culture.

Throughout scholarly discourse, various terms are used in reference to the multiple facets of gender. Although often used interchangeably in practice, sex and gender are in fact distinct concepts. According to Fischer and Arnold (1994, p.164), 'sex' refers to the biologically based categories of male and female, 'gender' represents the psychological features associated with males and females, 'gender identity' means the personality traits of the sexes, and 'gender role attitudes' signifies the attitudinal differences regarding roles, rights, and responsibilities of women and men. Biological sex studies normally focus on "gender as a variable" in male versus female comparisons (Bettany et al., 2010, p.7). As noted by Fisher and Arnold (1994), gender identity is a more comprehensive concept and as such is often referred to as "psychological sex" (Kolyesnikova et al., 2009, p. 201). Gender identity broadens factors beyond mere biological differences "to include the notion of social and cultural constructions of masculinity and femininity" (Bettany et al., 2010, p.8). It is beyond the scope of this paper to further distinguish these definitions. Given the strong psychological aspect of marketing, the term gender is deemed most appropriate for this review (although the measurement of gender for this dissertation was based on the biological classifications of female and male).

Bettany et al. (2010), while documenting the history of gender research, stated that "gender research has existed in many forms since the birth of science and philosophy" (p.6). These authors referenced early Aristotelian and Darwinian views but maintained that gender research in modern form truly emerged during the 1960-1970s in the humanities and social sciences as a response to the strong feminist movement at that time. Specific to the discipline of marketing, gender culture only became a meaningful consideration over the past two decades. Barletta (2006), a respected authority and author on the subject of "marketing to women" (M2W),

recounted her experience as a business student in the 1970s when most business matters were essentially dominated by men:

> Thirty years later, there have been literally thousands of studies, in fields as diverse as anthropology, biochemistry, neuroscience, human development, psychology, and sociolinguistics,….we now have hard data that confirm there are significant differences between men and women in every field just mentioned (p.16).

Beetles and Harris (2005) pointed to the introduction of the bi-annual Academy of Consumer Research conference on gender, marketing and consumer behaviour in 1991 as "a significant landmark for gender based research from a business, as well as marketing, perspective" (p.206). Bettany et al. (2010) highlighted the expanding marketing related topics (such as gender, culture, technology, fashion, consumerism and masculinity) that have broadened the application of gender theory in consumer behaviour and marketing.

There is clearly strong and growing interest in gender issues in marketing and as Beetles and Harris (2005) pointed out: "many opportunities and under-explored areas of marketing would benefit from a gendered or feminist perspective" (p.222). Kolyesnikova et al. (2009) added that "less is known about how specifically social norms differ between males and females and how this difference relates to consumption" (p.200). Bettany et al. (2010) echo these sentiments noting that: "there remains many areas within marketing and consumer research where gender and feminist research could offer new insights, theories and approaches" (p.4). These persistent gaps in marketing knowledge substantiate the purpose and contributions of this dissertation in identifying the potential impact of gender on sponsorship response.

2.3.2 Marketing to Women – Economic Opportunity Number One

Well known marketing theorist Tom Peters described women as the most promising market and "economic opportunity number one" (in Barletta, 2006, p. xiii). Skoloda (2009) also referenced Peters' position as it relates to the power of female consumers, "…women are the primary purchasers of…damn near everything. We must, therefore, strive on every front to achieve nothing less than total enterprise realignment around this awesome, burgeoning, astoundingly untapped market" (p.5).

Historically, women have often been referred to as a niche market or opportunity (Barletta, 2006; Johnson & Learned, 2004; Skoloda, 2009). Considering the demographic size of the female population as well as the commanding influence that women exert in marketplace decision-making, women are far from niche. In both the Canadian and American populations, there are currently more females than males. In Canada, population estimates for 2013 indicate over 17.7 million females (50.4% of the Canadian population) with the sixty-five and older segment growing most rapidly at +3.7% (Statistics Canada, 2013). Similar trends are observed in the United Stated where over 157.6 million female residents account for 51% of the U.S. population (United States Census Bureau, 2012). In addition to the fact that there are physically more females than males in both Canada and the U.S., the increased presence and influence of women is examined here from the following three perspectives: i) education, ii) employment and income, and iii) purchasing influence and behaviour.

Education: Silverstein and Sayre (2009) contend that education is the primary driver of women's increased earning power and influence. They offered the following statistics regarding the education of women in the U.S. (p.32):

- In 2007, 70% of female high school graduates enrolled in college, up from 40% prior to 1972.
- Women account for the majority (60%) of the college population, up from only 44% before 1972.
- 30% of American women versus 28% of men hold an undergraduate degree.

Catalyst, a non-profit organization with a membership of over 450 companies, firms, and educational institutions from five continents, is a trusted and often cited resource for research and information about women and work. Catalyst (2011) reported that in 2008-2009, women earned 57.2% of U.S. undergraduate degrees, 60.4% of graduate degrees and 52.3% of doctoral degrees. Similar profiles are observed in Canada, where women earned 59% of college, 62% of bachelor, 54% of masters and 44% of doctorate degrees (Statistics Canada, 2011). These higher levels of education are leading women to higher paying occupations and expanding career opportunities.

Employment and Income: By the 1970s, many women had shed the 'housewife' label in favour of 'work wife' (Howard, 2010). Today, women make up 47.5% of the Canadian labour force, and of the dual-career couples in the U.S. in 2008, wives earned more than their husbands 26.6% of the time (Catalyst, 2011). Women have embraced entrepreneurship. In the U.S., women-owned firms generate an economic impact of $3 trillion annually and account for 16% of all U.S. jobs (Catalyst, 2011). In addition to small business, women are also entering traditionally male-dominated professions such as law (34.9% of Canadian lawyers in 2007 were women according to Catalyst, 2011), medicine (29% of U.S. physicians), higher education (39% of U.S. faculty), and military (14% of U.S. military) (Silverstein & Sayre, 2009). Women are also climbing the corporate ladder in hopes of shattering the proverbial glass ceiling. In the U.S., 51.5% of

management and professional positions are held by women while at the top of the management pyramid, 15.7% of board seats with Fortune 500 companies are occupied by women, up from 14.4% in 2004 (Catalyst, 2011).

Maclaren and Catterall (2000), focusing specifically on women in the marketing profession, distinguished women's leadership styles as encouraging, participatory, more cautious and risk-adverse with a longer-term orientation. They linked feminine traits such as empathy, helpfulness, caring, nurturance, sensitivity and cooperation with the more modern marketing era of consumer-centricity and relationship-based marketing. These authors encouraged the continued professional presence and development of women in marketing management.

In a study of 12,000 women in forty countries, Silverstein and Sayre (2009) calculated that 'working women around the world earn the equivalent of $12 trillion in salaries and wages annually" (p.31). This tremendous amount of wealth (and corresponding power and marketing appeal) is the result of the noted educational and professional accomplishments of women. Although inequality persists, US women's average income has increased 63% over the past three decades (1970-2002) whereas men's has remained relatively stable at +0.6% (Barletta, 2006). This surge in female earnings has narrowed the gender wage gap. In 2010, women in Canada earned 74.5% of what men made, while U.S. women earned 81.2% (Catalyst, 2011). The wage gap between genders varies by age, with younger women enjoying more equitable pay. For instance, in the U.S., women 20-24 years old earned more than the national average in 2009, taking home 92.9% of men's earnings, while 25-34 year olds earned 88.7% (Catalyst, 2011).

This data highlights the progression that has been realized in the workplace as well as the disparities that still exist, in particular in top leadership positions.

Purchasing Influence and Behaviour: There is abundant data to support the claim that women are key purchase influencers and decision-makers. Most studies report that women control roughly 80% of consumer spending (Barletta, 2006; Johnson & Learned, 2004; Johne, 2010). Johnson and Learned (2004) referenced the Centre for Women's Business Research in indicating that 51% of all purchasing managers and agents are women and that these businesswomen transfer their influence into their homes where they make 95% of purchase decisions. Similarly, Silverstein and Sayre (2009) state that, in developing countries, 40% of women control 91-100% of household spending. The premier symposium on marketing to women in the U.S. is the *M2W Conference* which was launched in 2005 by PME Enterprises. The M2W Conference website (2011) provides the following facts (that are commonly cited) to validate what has been termed 'the power of the purse' or the 'she-conomy':

- Women account for 85% of all consumer purchases, 91% of new homes, 66% of personal computers, 92% of vacations, 80% of healthcare, 65% of new cars, 89% of bank accounts, 93% of food and 93% of over-the-counter pharmaceuticals.
- American women spend about $7 trillion annually (over half the U.S. GDP).
- Women represent the majority of the online market.
- Seventy percent of new businesses are started by women and when women are aware that you support women owned businesses, 79% will try your product or service and 80% will solidify their brand loyalty. These findings suggest strong solidarity among women in business.

The above statistics confirm that women's purchasing power thoroughly spans both their personal and professional lives. As the various authors referenced above have duly noted, women are not a niche market but rather a leading population that marketers must recognize and uniquely address. Warner (2006) summarized by stating that "…women are indeed the world's most powerful consumer" (p.6).

2.3.3 Women and Men: Equals but Not the Same

The goal of the original feminist movement was equality across genders, including equality in education, employment, politics, sport and society in general. The natural tendency for many may be to assume that equality means sameness and that any recognition of differences is a form of sexism (Cunningham & Roberts, 2007). The scientific advancements in the study of gender have acknowledged that profound biological and societal differences between sexes are legitimate and significant. Barletta (2006) categorized these differences by chromosomes, hormones and brains in favour of the old cheeky adage of "sugar and spice and everything nice" (p.21). There is common belief that male and female brains function differently and that males are generally considered to be right hemisphere dependent (i.e., non-verbal production, visual activity, spatial abilities) while females are predominantly left hemisphere dependent (i.e., verbal communication, comprehensive information processing, linguistic skills) (Bush, 1997; Goodrich, 2014; Hu et al., 2013; Meyers-Levy, 1994; Schlaepfer, Harris, Tien, Peng, Lee, & Pearlson, 1995). In a review of gender differences, Darley and Smith (1995) identified gender differences that have been suggested throughout various fields of research. Among these stated differences were men's superior spatial orientation and female's stronger verbal or linguistic skills, women's greater accuracy in detecting non-verbal cues, women's tendency to more easily conform and be influenced by others, and the stronger intrinsic motivation of women. Studies that investigate

gender differences normally acknowledge that differences can stem from physiological, environmental and/or sociocultural factors (Darley & Smith, 1995; Goodrich, 2014; Putrevu, 2001). Regardless of the source of distinction, the impacts of these differences on information processing and decision-making are most relevant in the context of this particular dissertation.

There is extensive support for the belief that women and men differ in their approach to information processing (Beetles & Harris, 2005; Bush, 1997; Cunningham & Roberts, 2009; Granot, Greene, & Bashear, 2010; Green & Antoine, 2011; Lee, Haley, & Avery, 2010; Meyers-Levy & Maheswaran, 1991; Meyers-Levy & Sternthal, 1991; Putrevu, 2001; Passyn, Drriker, & Settle, 2011; Wajda et al., 2008; Wolin, 2003). Meyers-Levy's (1989) selectivity model is the basis for many of the observed gender differences in consumer decision-making. According to this model, women engage in broader, more comprehensive processing of information as they gather and consider multiple sources and devote greater effort to all relevant and subtle details. Women are classified as more caring and nurturing as they exhibit greater concern for others. In comparison, this model defines men as selective processors who rely on less information and follow a more single and self-serving approach to streamlined decision-making with less sensitivity to the needs of others.

In explaining this same model, Green and Antoine (2011) added that females' processing of information is normally "effortful, detailed, and elaborate" (p.91) and Wajda et al. (2008) suggested that males "consider only a subset of all available information" (p.15) and seek out cues that are consistent with existing knowledge. In their study of category width dimensions, Wajda et al. (2008) found that males simplify the selection process by lumping what they believe

to be similar products into one category or evoked set. Women however are more attentive to subtle differences and nuances and therefore consider a wider set of alternatives and seek greater and more meaningful differentiation in evaluating numerous options (Wajda et al., 2008). These commonly accepted differences in processing can be situational dependent. For instance, involvement has been identified as a factor that can alter these processing roles (Meyers-Levy, 1989; Meyers-Levy & Sternthal, 1991). Darley and Smith (1995) acknowledged the potential influence of situational factors in stating that; "gender differences in information processing will disappear if situational factors motivate males to also engage in comprehensive processing" (p.43). In the context of sport sponsorship for instance, it is reasonable to expect that men's involvement with sport could motivate more elaborate processing.

Meyers-Levy and Sternthal (1991) also considered the psychological orientation of males and females along the dimensions of agency and communion. These authors contend that agency is normally assumed by males and represents a "single, self-assertive and achievement-oriented concern" (p.94). In contrast, communion more accurately depicts females and is characterized as a broader concern beyond one's own self with an emphasis on affiliation and attachment to others (Meyers-Levy & Sternthal, 1991). In a similar vein, Kolyesnikova et al. (2009) referred to "the male assertiveness-female nurturance patterns" (p.202). These authors pointed out that early gender research demonstrated that masculinity is typically associated with assertiveness and accomplishment while femininity is more related to nurturance and emotional concerns for others and great conformity to social norms. These deeper understandings of motivation offer further insight into the considerations of males and females in their respective decision-making processes.

In marketing, gender remains one of the most common bases for consumer segmentation as gendered segments satisfy the requirements of being easily identified, accessible, and large enough to be profitable (Darley & Smith, 1995; Perreault et al., 2007; Putrevu, 2001).

Prior marketing research has supported gender differences in information processing mainly from the perspective of advertising. Darley and Smith (1975) provided empirical support for the selectivity model's predictions of how males and females process advertising claims as women in this study were more likely to notice subtle messaging differences and devoted more elaborate effort in processing both objective and subjective advertising claims. In a critical review of the literature on the information processing differences between males and female, Putrevu (2001) recommended that advertisers targeting men (who are selective-processors) focus on a single theme ad while ads directed at women (who are comprehensive-processors) should contain a lot of product information. In this case, it was proposed that women will attempt to assimilate all available information before forming an opinion. Kempf et al. (2006) also found support for the selectivity hypothesis in a study that showed women as more sensitive and elaborate in the processing of both advertising and more subtle product trial offers. Men in this study tended to rely on readily available information and were less likely to seek out additional details regarding trial offers. Most recently, Goodrich (2014) confirmed the applicability of the selectivity principle with on-line advertising as women in this study devoted greater attention to text-based appeals and detailed product explanations while men favoured more graphic-oriented advertisements. This inquiry also found that women expressed more favourable attitudes towards advertisements appearing on the right of the page while males were more favourable to left page ad placement. Kempf et al. (2006) highlighted the need to study gender-based differences in consumer processing beyond the confines of advertising.

2.3.4 Priorities and Interests of Female Consumers

Barletta (2006) stated that "to motivate and persuade people you have to talk to them about things they care about, in terms that matter to them, what they cherish, what they're proud of, what they enjoy" (p.83). Silverstein and Sayre (2009) found that women's priorities include family, health, security, love, friends, learning/education, career success, helping others, and giving back. Underhill (2010) followed the path of women through relevant places such as the home, hair salons, hotels, malls, gyms, and social network sites and summarized women's more practical wants as cleanliness, control, safety and consideration. Warner (2006) introduced the terms "gender flipping" and "gender somersaulting" (p.49) to describe the tension that women often feel as they mix and match traditional roles of the past with realities of the present. As an example of this "turn and churn of gender roles" (Warner, 2006, p.49), women continue to value a clean home and want to provide healthy and homemade meals for their families but given their demanding full-time careers, they do not necessarily have the time. Warner (2008) advised marketers to truly listen to women and learn what is most important to them in their new realities. In relation to this dissertation, two areas are of most interest: i) women's attitudes and behaviours toward charitable causes, and ii) women's intensifying engagement with sport.

Women's purchase decisions are often symbolic of greater motivations and meanings (Grohmann, 2009). Women want to do business with organizations that care, are responsible, and contribute to societal causes (Barletta, 2006; Warner, 2006). The previous review of cause sponsorship also revealed compelling evidence that women respond most favourably to cause-affiliated marketing efforts (Berger et al., 1999; Cone, 2010a; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Irwin et al., 2003; Ross et al., 1992; Roy & Graeff, 2003). According to Silverstein and Sayre (2009), women have a passion for giving, are careful about the charities they support and are drawn by

the social aspect of banding together for a worthy cause. This trend was also identified in previously reviewed studies involving participant-based fundraising events (Bennett et al., 2007; Taylor & Shanka, 2008).

Gender matters in philanthropy as women are generally found to be more likely to give to charity and to support multiple causes (Piper & Schnept, 2007). In summarizing the literature on charitable giving, Mesch, Brown, Moore, and Hayat (2011) listed four possible explanations for observed gender differences in donor behaviour: i) women have been socialized as caregivers, ii) women view philanthropy as a means of demonstrating their caring, iii) women are more emotional than men, and iv) women are more egalitarian whereas men are more competitive (p.344). These authors proceeded to confirm that women were more empathetic and had a stronger moral sense to help others in need that resulted in a greater propensity to give to charity and the tendency to donate significantly higher amounts to charity than men (Mesch et al., 2011). In Canada, reports also confirm that women are more likely than men to donate to a charitable cause and that women tend to favour health organizations while men direct their donations to sport and recreational organizations (Turcotte, 2012). Recent studies comparing the moral philosophies of men and women suggest that, in general, women exhibit higher intentions to behave ethically and favour companies who are ethically responsible (Bateman & Valentine, 2010; Green & Antoine, 2011).

Sport has already been established as an effective gateway to goodness as more events are uniting sport and cause for the purpose of mutual gain. Sport is also increasingly considered as a meaningful platform upon which to engage women consumers (Dodds, DeGaris, & Perricone, 2014). Women represent an important segment of the sport market as female sport opportunities (for participation and spectatorship) from recreational to professional ranks continues to grow.

The 2008 Physical Activity Monitor revealed that 45% of Canadian women are active in sport compared to 51% of men. Team sport participation has increased among women from 39% in 2004 to 59% in 2008, particularly among 25-44 year olds (CFLRI, 2009). More recently, 25% of Canadian females (aged 15 and older) reported daily active sport participation with an average duration of 1 hour and 34 minutes (Statistics Canada, 2010, p.10). Although absolute numbers may vary, the general findings of the 2005 study of Sport Participation in Canada (Ifedi, 2008) revealed similar promising results for women and sport. While men in this study appear to participate more in sport (36% of men), the gap between genders dropped 15 percentage points from 1998 to 2005 when an encouraging 21% of women reported regularly participating in sport (Ifedi, 2008, p.18). Equally interesting is the report that women coaches in Canadian amateur sport (882,000) outnumbered male coaches (874,000) in this same 2005 study (p. 44). When considering Canadian children aged 5 to 14 years, 44.1% of girls and 55.4% of boys were active in sport (Ifedi, 2008, p.34). It's worth noting in this case that boys' participation in sport over the observed seven year period of 1998-2005 dropped from 58.8% to 55.4% while girls' participation rates (44.3.% to 44.1%) remained relatively stable (p.34).

At the collegiate level, Canadian Interuniversity Sport (CIS) is the governing body for university sport in Canada and offers athletes the opportunity to combine a high-quality sport experience and a university education. The CIS currently offers eleven women's and ten men's sports. With the exception of football for men and field hockey and rugby for women, the sport offerings are the same for university men and women (CIS, 2011). In 2012-2013, the number of interuniversity teams for women (482) and for men (483) was virtually equal. In terms of CIS leadership however, women remain under-represented as 24% of Athletic Directors (up from 17% in 2010-2011) and 17% of head coaches were female (Donnelly, Norman, & Kidd, 2013).

The Canadian Collegiate Athletic Association (CCAA) governs college sport in Canada and is comprised of over 9,000 intercollegiate athletes, 700 coaches and more than 150 sport administrators (CCAA, 2011). The CCAA offers seven sports with equal access to both male and female athletes. Similar to the CIS, the majority (88%) of head coaches in the CCAA are male. The CCAA is investing in the development of female coaches through the Female Coach Apprenticeship Program (CCAA, 2011).

Female athletes' presence at the Olympic level is also noteworthy. In 1896, there was a critical element absent from the first Modern Olympic Games in Athens: women. No women were invited to compete in these games and according to the International Olympic Committee, it is even believed that all contestants, judges, coaches, trainers and spectators were men (IOC, 2008). Strong lobbying efforts from determined advocates of women and sport changed the international landscape for female sports. Since the 1980s the Olympic Movement has made social inclusion and gender equality a priority. In 1995, the IOC Women and Sport Commission was established with the clear mandate of "encouraging women to be active in the Olympic Movement alongside boys and men" (IOC, 2008, p.15). At the 2009 Women and Sport Awards ceremony, Anita DeFrantz, IOC member and Chairwoman of the IOC Women and Sport Commission stated the following:

> On the field of play, we are moving closer and closer to men and women competing in even numbers on the world's greatest sporting stage. It is still the mission of the IOC Women and Sport Commission to see more women in sport involved in decision-making and in the media. The landscape is slowly changing, and women will have a much bigger role to play in sport in the future (www.olympic.org).

Women's participation rates at the Olympic level have surged from 0% in 1896 to a peak of 44% at the 2012 London Summer Games (IOC, 2013). At the 2014 Sochi Winter Games, women represented 45% of Canadian Olympic athletes (Canadian Olympic Committee, 2013). This data confirms that women have indeed made remarkable inroads at the highest level of athletic excellence.

Female athletes have also made an impressive mark at the professional sport level. There are a variety of professional women's leagues, most notably the Ladies Professional Golf Association (LPGA), the Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA), the Women's Tennis Association (WTA) and the Pro Beach Volleyball Tour. High profile athletes such as Serena and Venus Williams (tennis), Steffi Graf (tennis), Annika Sorenstam (golf), Michelle Wie (golf), Mia Ham (soccer), Gabrielle Reese (volleyball), Hayley Wickenheiser (ice hockey) and Danica Patrick (auto racing) are among a growing list of female athletes that are becoming household names and role models for a new generation of girls. Women are also realizing historical gender breakthroughs at the professional level of traditionally male dominated sports. Women's boxing debuted at the 2012 London Olympic Games, women's ski jumping was introduced at the 2014 Sochi Games (IOC, 2013), Danica Patrick was the first women to sit on the pole at the 2013 Daytona 500 and is the only women to lead a lap in this prestigious race (Associate Press, 2013), and Ronda Rousey defeated Liz Carmouche in the first ever women's Ultimate Fighting Championship in February, 2013 (The Canadian Press, 2013).

In addition to participating in sport, a growing number of girls and women are avid sport fans and spectators. At the amateur sport level in Canada, 48.3% of spectators are female and 51.7% are male (Ifedi, 2008). At the professional level, according to Adams (2003), 47% of MLB fans, 46% of NBA fans, 43% of NFL fans, 41% of NHL fans, 41% of NASCAR fans, and 49% of

MLS fans are women. Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End, and Jacquemotte (2000) also found that an equal number of males and females considered themselves to be sports fans, although in this study males identified more strongly as sport fans. When considering sport apparel purchases, Shank (in Armstrong, 2001) reported that women who purchased merchandise for themselves represented 35% of total NHL licensed product sales, 44% of NBA sales and that 70% of the NFL's female fan base purchased NFL merchandise. Barbano (in Armstrong, 2001) states that "Not only are women watching men's sports, but men's sports are watching women - very closely" (p.2). Recognizing the growth and potential of female fans, professional sport organizations are adapting and increasing their marketing efforts to women. Clark et al. (2009) detail the success of the NFL's "Football 101" clinics that attract over 10,000 women annually. Others have implemented similar initiatives in an effort to build their female fan base. The Washington Capitals launched "Club Scarlet", the first NHL customized female fan club (www.scarletcaps.com). The MLB has also initiated several female-specific initiatives, including players using pink bats on Mother's Day, Baseball 101 educational programs, and Stitch N' Pitch, a ballpark needle point event (Dodds et al., 2014). Dodds et al. (2014) critiqued such programs as "pandering to the female fan, similar to the old *pink and shrink* theory of merchandising" and recommended that baseball sponsors take female fans seriously and market to them on their sport interest rather than simply gender. There are "pink versions" for essentially every major league merchandising line. Often sales of these items are tied to charitable causes, an increasingly common strategy in marketing to female sport fans (Clark et al., 2009).

The above review confirms that women's involvement with sport has evolved at all levels (i.e., grassroots, collegiate, Olympic, and professional) and in various capacities (e.g., participants, coaches, and spectators). As with cause, this increased importance of sport in the lives of women, creates new and expanding opportunities for meaningful consumer engagement. Next, gender differences in the consumption of sport are highlighted before reviewing existing findings pertaining to female consumers' response to sponsorship.

2.3.5 Gender Differences in Sport Consumption

Research efforts examining gender differences in sport motivations, perceptions and consumption behaviours have identified important distinctions between male and female sport participants, fans, and spectators. Eccles and Harold (1991) determined that gender differences in children's attitudes toward sports emerge at a young age and that girls generally feel inferior to boys in terms of their athletic ability and the importance and enjoyment that they attribute to the sport domain. Aiken and Sukhdial (2004) established men as having an 'old school' orientation characterized by three main components. These include: i) being a good role model with strong traditional work ethic, ii) playing for the love of the sport and not being consumed by inflated egos and materialistic wealth, and iii) putting fair play, respect and sportsmanship above winning. Contrary to Aiken and Sukhdial (2004), Bush et al. (2007) found that women had more of an old school sport orientation that surpassed men with respect to the importance of responsible role models and the belief that teamwork is favoured over winning at all costs. Wiley, Shaw, and Havitz (2000) found that personal relevance and involvement profiles for sports vary by gender and that women are increasingly attracted to non-conforming sports (such as ice hockey) for which opportunities for equal participation were historically limited. Similar to Bush et al. (2007), Wiley et al. (2000) asserted that women are more likely than men to value

the pleasure and enjoyment aspects of sport with less concern for competition and individual achievement. Similar findings were reported by Dietz-Uhler et al. (2000) who confirmed that women were more drawn to sports for social reasons that included attending games, enjoyment of cheering, and spending time with family and friends. Men in this case attributed their fandom to their enjoyment of participating in sports and acquiring sports information. The social aspect of sport has been widely acknowledged as a primary motive for female sport participation and spectatorship as females tend to place greater value on sharing sport experiences (Bush et al., 2007; Clark et al., 2009; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Shani, Sandler, & Long, 1992). Armstrong (2001) suggested that marketers of sport seek image congruency with female fans by promoting the human qualities of the team. James and Ridinger (2002) found that males reported higher sport fan ratings than females but that females had stronger allegiance to a specific team (rather than to sport in general). Women in this study also reportedly felt that women's basketball was more aesthetically appealing than men's basketball (James & Ridinger, 2002). This observation may suggest sentiments of gender solidarity. James and Ridinger (2002) stressed the need to continue to contrast men's and women's sports in an effort to better understand possible differences and similarities in event characteristics and attendees motivations and behaviours.

Kahle, Aiken, Dalakas, and Duncan (2003) proposed that consumers of women's sporting events (including predominantly women but also men) make up an entirely different consumption community than for men's sporting events. A study of 759 consumers of four collegiate basketball games (two men's games and two women's games) found that environmental factors (such as half-time entertainment, food and beverage concessions, comfort and location of seating, stadium atmosphere, and courteousness of staff) were favoured more strongly by

spectators at the women's games than spectators at the men's games (Kahle et al., 2003). To note, sponsorship activities were not specifically considered among environmental factors in this study. The majority (72%) of respondents at the men's game were male, while the majority (57%) of respondents at the women's game were female. Fink, Trail, and Anderson (2002) conducted a comparable study with similar results. This study also found that environmental variables (promotions, family, friends, and ticket pricing), team loyalty and purchase intentions (future games and team merchandise) were most significant with spectators of women's basketball games while respondents at men's games reported stronger feelings about following their team in the media, purchasing merchandise and wearing team apparel (Fink et al., 2002).

There is growing observation that women support female sport in part to demonstrate gender solidarity and to celebrate the development and accomplishments of women in sport (Bennett et al., 2007; Edwards & La Ferle, 2009; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Sack & Fried, 2001). Whiteside and Hardin (2011) recognized the disconnect between growing female sport participation and the lack of (TV) viewership of women's sports. They noted women's expressed support for equality in women's sport coverage but also the lack of corresponding devotion to actual consumption of women's sport broadcasts. Thus, the idea of gender solidarity as an influence on sport behaviour remains rather obscure.

2.3.6 Gender Differences in Sponsorship Effects

Early sponsorship studies seldom considered gender in examining consumer response and Dodds et al. (2014) caution that females remain an "under-activated target in terms of sponsorship" (p.71). Women's increased power and influence (in the marketplace, sports arena and with charitable causes) has driven a corresponding interest in understanding the role that gender plays

in sponsorship outcomes. Since the majority of sponsorship campaigns revolve around some aspect of sport, the growing importance of sport to women was established above. Sport has long been a means of reaching male consumers, but according to Lough and Irwin (2001), women were not considered as targets of sport sponsorship due to a perceived lack of sport knowledge, sport interest and marketplace power. Shaw and Amis (2001) raised the question that "If sport sponsorship is seen as a viable medium through which to influence actual and potential male consumers, then could it not be used to influence females in a comparable way?" (p.227). A case study approach guided these authors to conclude that there is "no evidence, or logic, to suggest that it could not" (Shaw & Amis, 2001, p.227).

In 1992, Shani et al. were among the first to identify sport as an untapped opportunity to engage female consumers. A content analysis of advertising shown during the men's and women's 1990 US Tennis Open revealed that marketers at this time, "made almost no attempt to appeal to the female market as a separate segment having different needs" (Shani et al., 1992, p.392). In 1995, a featured article in Marketing News (Rubel, 1995) brought further attention to the sponsorship of women's sports as an emerging and unsaturated means of marketing to the lucrative female market. Sack and Fried (2001) found that women's sport sponsorship was increasingly prominent in promotional efforts and that women's sport (tennis in this case) could transcend gender as it was enjoyed not only by women, but also by male fans. Over the past several decades, the sponsorship of women's sport has gained momentum and greater credibility as an effective means of reaching specific consumer segments, overcoming sponsorship clutter, projecting a wholesome and positive image, accessing cooperative and responsible female role models, and conveying a corporate commitment to the movement of female sport development (Lough & Irwin, 2001; Maxwell & Lough, 2009; Sack & Fried, 2001; Shaw & Amis, 2001).

Earlier in this review, gender differences in cause-related marketing and advertising response were presented. This final section considered existing knowledge as it pertains to gender differences in response to sponsorship. Table 11 summarizes (in chronological order) an additional twelve studies specific to gendered consumers' response and brings together all other studies (one from sponsorship review and six from cause review) referenced throughout this analysis that in some manner consider gendered response at the cognitive, affective and /or behavioural levels.

The contexts of these investigations span a range of sponsorship scenarios including sport sponsorship (male, female, and gender-neutral sports at the collegiate, Olympic and professional levels), CRSS (male, female, gender-neutral sports and causes), celebrity endorsements (male and female athletes and non-athletes), cause-related advertising (in service, apparel and consumer packaged goods industries) and more general cause association marketing.

Participants in these inquiries included event attendees, broadcast viewers and in most cases, convenient samples in controlled settings. In fact, ten of these nineteen studies (53%) include a student sample. A notable gap in these analyzed efforts is consideration for sponsorship effects on event participants.

Findings from these studies support growing propositions that gender is a significant variable in consumer response at the cognitive, affective and behavioural stages. In addition to addressing the acknowledged need to move beyond mere sponsor recognition and to more effectively measure consumer engagement, Alay (2008), was among the first to solely focus on female response to sponsorship. Alay (2008) extended the determinants of sports sponsorship response framework presented by Speed and Thompson (2000) in order to investigate sponsorship

response (also measured in terms of interest, favourability and use) of 413 female university students in Turkey. The design of this study was completely female oriented. In addition to an all-female sample, this investigation focused on the sponsorship of women's sport (specifically, the European Women's Volleyball Championship) by a female-only product line (feminine hygiene). Alay (2008) relied on the Sponsorship Evaluation Questionnaire (SEQ) to collect data for this study. This 55-item-11 component SEQ was originally inspired by Speed and Thompson (2000) and subsequently confirmed as a valid and reliable tool for measuring the effects of sponsorship by Alay (2010). The first part of the SEQ includes 43 items under eight subscales of determinants of sponsorship response which consist of: i) status of the event, ii) attitude toward the event, iii) personal liking of the event, iv) attitude toward the sponsor, v) image of the sponsor, vi) sincerity of the sponsor, vii) ubiquity of the sponsor, and viii) sponsor-event fit. The second part of the questionnaire measures consumers' response to sponsorship using 12 items that are captured through three additional outcome components: ix) interest, x) favourability, and xi) use.

Consistent with Speed and Thompson (2000), Alay (2008) concluded that in general all identified event, sponsorship and sponsor factors effect sponsorship response in terms of interest, favourability and the use of sponsors' products. The only contradiction between these studies was that Alay (2008) found that dislike for an event can be overcome by strong sponsor-event fit and still positively influence product use. In order to maximize sponsorship outcomes with a female audience, this study recommended that a suitable fit between sponsor and event be established, that the sponsor exhibit genuine sincerity, and that high-status events be selected. The significance of these particular constructs with a female audience served as an important guide in the design of this current dissertation.

Speed and Thompson (2000), as well as Alay (2008; 2010), grouped the determinants of sponsorship response according to consumers' perceptions of event factors, sponsorship factors, and sponsor factors. Although some of the variables across these three main groupings are elements of involvement (such as personal liking for the event and attitude to the event) these versions of the model do not specifically emphasize personal involvement as a distinct influential factor on consumer response.

Alay's (2008) study was limited to female response and therefore no gender comparisons could be drawn. The remaining studies in Table 11 all include both male and female subjects in order to distinguish the magnitude of behavioural difference between genders. Only one of the reviewed studies found that male respondents consumed more of the sponsored product than females (Bennett et al., 2009). In this case, the choice of sponsor (Mountain Dew soft drink) and the particular sporting event (extreme sport) were both male skewed which the authors acknowledged as a possible influence on observed outcomes. In a study involving NASCAR fans, Kinney et al. (2008) found that male respondents were able to recall a slightly larger number (2-3) of sponsors than female fans while a study of Olympic sponsors' advertising revealed no gender difference in sponsor recall or ability to distinguish official sponsors from ambush marketers (McDaniel & Kinney, 1998). Pham (1992) unexpectedly corroborated reports that males outperform females in sponsorship recognition and concluded that men's higher level of involvement with the sport (Belgian soccer in this case) lead to higher order processing of all details surrounding the event while women's lower level of sport (i.e., soccer) knowledge resulted in more attention being devoted to the game itself and reduced notice of surrounding stimuli such as sponsor messaging. Lake, Reece, and Rifon (2010) concluded that men were more forgiving than women of celebrity athletes' negative publicity. Partnering with a credible

and suitable celebrity is paramount for female consumers as they show favour for positive role models with a team above self-approach (Bush et al., 2004; Bush et al., 2007) and tend to trust female endorsers more than male endorsers (Edwards & La Ferle, 2009).

The inclusion of cause truly resonates with women and motivates them at all levels of effect (Berger et al., 1999; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Irwin et al., 2003; Roy & Graeff, 2003). The impact of cause is reported by some to be greatest with mothers (Cone, 2010a; Ross et al., 1992).

Maxwell and Lough (2009) found that spectator identification was a stronger predictor of sponsor recognition than was gender. Similarly, Tobar (2006) reported that enjoyment of Super Bowl advertisements (for which women scored higher) was the best predictor of purchase intentions. The thought that men and women identify differently with certain sports or causes was considered in the design of this dissertation.

A final observation drawn from this summary of studies (i.e., Table 11) is the dates of these published reports. Only five studies were conducted in the 1990s while fourteen studies were completed in the 2000s (of which twelve are from 2006 or later). Recent increased research attention in this trending area is very promising and is reflective of a subject prime for further inquiry and discovery. The latest CSLS reported that very few sponsorships (4.8%) currently target women however 31% of sponsors indicated that they expect sponsorship targeting women to increase (O'Reilly & Biselt, 2013). Dodds et al. (2014) recently found that gender plays an important role in sponsorship promotion and stated that: "it is imperative that academic research begins to examine the role of gender as it affects sponsorship activation" (p.72).

Table 11: Summary of Gender Difference in Sponsorship Effects Studies

			Findings		
Author(s) (Year)	**Context**	**Sample / Event**	**Cognitive Stage**	**Affective Stage**	**Behavioural Stage**
McDaniel & Kinney (1998)	Sport Sponsorship (TV spectators)	n=215 university students (U.S., 58% female) Event: experiment (Olympic advertisements of official sponsors and ambushers)	Gender did not impact the ability to correctly recall or recognize official Olympic sponsors.	Females had more favourable attitudes and purchase intentions for two of the three sponsored product categories tested (fast food and credit card companies.) Findings may have been influenced by category choice or creative execution.	
McDaniel (1999)	Sport Sponsorship (TV spectators)	n=216 university students (U.S., 59% female) Event: experiment	Women process information differently.	Females responded more favourably (attitude toward ad and purchase intention) to sport sponsorship than did men.	
Bush, Martin, & Bush (2004)	Celebrity Athlete Endorsement	n=218 Generation Y (aged 13-18, 46% female) Event: experiment		Females favoured products that were endorsed by their favourite sport role models.	-Females were more influenced by sport celebrities and more likely to spread positive word-of-mouth about endorsed products. -Females agreed more than males that athlete role models influence them

					to buy certain brands.
Tobar (2006)	Sport Sponsorship (TV spectators)	n1=81 students (27% female) n2=111 parents (54% mothers) Event: Super Bowl television spectators		-Men reported higher sport fandom scores than women. -Women reported elevated scores for tension and vigour compared to men before the Super Bowl but lower scores following the game. -Women reported higher enjoyment of the half-time show.	Gender was not found to influence purchase intentions while enjoyment of the advertisements was the best predictor of purchase intentions.
Bush, Bush, Shannahan, & Dupuis (2007)	Celebrity Athlete Endorsement	n=303 university adults (80% US, 20% Canada, 45% female) Event: experiment	Women had more of an *old school'* sport orientation (believe that athletes should be good role models and that winning is not everything).	-The more females believe that athletes should be good role models, the more their favourite athlete influences their switching behaviour. -The more women believe that winning is not everything, the less their favourite athlete influences their brand loyalty. -Women's brand loyalty is more influenced by athletes who represent teamwork (vs.	

				winning).	
Alay (2008)	Female Sport Sponsorship (event spectators)	n=413 female students (Turkey) <u>Event:</u> European Women's Volleyball Championships	Sponsor-event fit, sincerity of sponsor, interaction of fit with status of event all influenced female consumers' interest, favour, and use of sponsor's products.		
Kinney, McDaniel, & DeGaris (2008)	Sport Sponsorship (fans)	n=935 NASCAR fans (U.S.. 42% female) Event: NASCAR sponsorships	Fan involvement predicts sponsor recall. Males were able to recall a larger number (2-3) of sponsors than were female respondents.		
Bennett, Ferreira, Lee, & Polite (2009)	Sport Sponsorship (event spectators)	n=552 attendees (35% female) Event: Dew Action Sports Tour (U.S.)			Age, gender and spectatorship (4 measures of involvement) had a direct impact on sponsor's brand use. Young males were more likely to consume Mountain Dew than females.
Edwards & La Ferle (2009)	Celebrity Endorsement	n=135 college students (U.S.) Event: experiment		-Women rated celebrity endorsements more	

				positively than men. -Women rated female celebrity endorsers as more trustworthy while men rated male endorsers as more trustworthy (gender congruity was found to be important)	
Maxwell & Lough (2009)	Female Sport Sponsorship (event spectators)	n1=316 (65.5% female) n2=334 (72.2% female) Event: NCAA women's basketball games (U.S.)	-Gender did not contribute significantly to correct sponsorship recognition. -Spectator identification and age of spectators both contributed to correct sponsor recognition.		
Lake, Reece, & Rifon (2010)	Celebrity Athlete Endorsement	n=240 university students (U.S.) Event: experiment		Males had a more favourable attitude toward a sport celebrity endorser when exposed to negative	

				feedback. Males were more forgiving of negative publicity than females. Commitment to the team and sport lessened the effect of negative publicity about the celebrity athlete.	
Dodds, DeGaris, & Perricone (2014)	Sport Sponsorship (baseball fans)	n=1,000 U.S. baseball fans (42.2% female) Event: national telephone survey	Both women and men had similar levels of baseball fan avidity however males were more interested in MLB while women were more interested in little league (suggesting strong market of Little League Mothers). Female fans were less aware of baseball sponsors' promotions.		Women (55.7%) participated more in general sales promotions than did men (42%). For baseball sponsors' promotions, no significant gender differences in response. Both men and women preferred free gifts over sweepstakes while women preferred different rewards (e.g., t-

					shirt) than men (e.g., team cap).
The following gender-findings are pasted from sponsorship studies summarized in Table 5					
Pham (1992)	Sport Sponsorship (TV spectators)	n=85 university students (Belgium) Event: experiment	Gender effect observed as males outperformed females in recognition tests.		
The following gender-findings are pasted from cause studies summarized in Table 10					
Ross, Patterson, & Stutts (1992)	Cause-Related Advertising (consumer packaged goods)	n=238 US adults Event: experiment (mall intercepts testing CRM efforts of P&G)		Women had a more positive attitude than men toward both the firm and the cause that used CRM.	CRM had a positive influence on purchase intention, particularly among women and respondents who had children.
Berger, Cunningham, & Kozinets (1999)	Cause-Related Advertising (service industry)	n1= 196 students (50.5% female) n2= 210 students (50.5% female) Event: experiment		Female students had more positive attitudes and higher purchase intentions for brands that use cause-related advertising than did male students.	
Irwin, Lachowetz, Cornwell, & Clark (2003)	Cause-Related Sport Sponsorship (event spectators)	n= 442 (31% female) Event: FedEx St. Jude Golf Classic	Female participants' attitudes, beliefs, and purchase intentions were stronger than males.		

Roy & Graeff (2003)	Cause-Related Sport Sponsorship (professional sport fans)	n=500 US adults (48.8% female) Event: experiment (telephone interviews, local NFL team)	Females had a stronger image of a local team if they partnered with causes.		
Cone (2010a)	Cause Associated Marketing	n=1057 American adults (51.6% female) Event: online survey		95% of Moms believe that cause marketing is acceptable (vs. 88% average)	-93% of Moms are likely to switch brands to one that supports a cause (price and quality being equal). -92% of Moms want to buy a product that supports a cause.
Hyllegard, Yan, Ogle, & Attmann (2011)	Cause-Related Advertising (apparel industry)	N=562 GenY college students (US, 51.4% female)		Gender did not influence brand attitudes but did predict purchase intention. Females were generally more involved and recorded stronger intentions to purchase sponsors' brands.	

After establishing the prominence of the female consumer market, this section elaborated on key gender differences that are most significant to this particular dissertation. Gender differences in information processing were identified as the basis for many of the reported differences in consumer response to advertising, cause-affiliated marketing and most notably (for this inquiry), sponsorship response. The importance of cause and sport to women was also established through this review of literature in order to substantiate the current study's focus on CRSS.

Chapter 3

3.0 Conclusions from Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

The literature review undertaken in support of this dissertation involved close to three hundred sources across the fields of sponsorship, corporate social responsibility /cause-affiliated marketing, and gender research in both marketing and sport management. This chapter begins with a summary of acquired learning from these areas. Next guiding principles revealed through the examination of existing knowledge are directly linked to the purpose and design of this dissertation. These findings serve as the basis for the conceptual framework of consumer processing of CRSS that was tested through this study.

3.1 Conclusions from Literature Review

This comprehensive analysis of sponsorship-related sources extends earlier scholarly efforts (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Walliser, 2003) to present verified knowledge regarding sponsorship. This review also profiles recent trends in sponsorship practice and highlights key areas in need of further exploration.

The literature supports the legitimacy of sponsorship as an integral element of the promotional mix (Ali et al., 2006; Seguin & O'Reilly, 2008; Shanklin & Kuzma, 1992). Corporate investment in sponsorship continues to grow while the nature and managerial expectations also have evolved in terms of complexity as well as sophistication. Today's sponsorship is no longer a pure philanthropic gesture of goodwill but rather it is an important strategic business-building approach that is capable of realizing significant corporate objectives, necessary consumer effects, and socially demanded goodness (Cahill & Meenaghan, 2013; Cornwell et al., 2005; Farrelly et

al., 2006; Gwinner et al., 2009). Meenaghan (2013) recently described today's sponsorship as a 'versatile platform for communication and engagement with multiple stakeholders" (p.387). Meenaghan et al. (2013) elaborated on this broadened view of sponsorship by listing seven stakeholders of sponsorship. These include: i) internal staff, ii) trade associates/ suppliers/ distributors, iii) government/ regulators, iv) shareholders, v) rights holders, vi) media, and vii) customers. These authors highlighted that such multi-stakeholder platforms are a significant, but largely overlooked trend in the sponsorship industry.

While several forms of sponsorship exist, the unique intensity, drama and emotion of sport render this the dominant choice of sponsors and an ideal gateway to consumer passion and engagement (Bal et al., 2009; Quester, 2005). Similarly, cause sponsorship is reportedly also enjoying a surge in both consumer and corporate interest, bringing attention to the notion of corporate goodwill (IEG, 2014; Johnston, 2010). The merging of sponsorship types (such as sport with cause) was presented as gaining significant momentum as sponsors seek to deliver exponential consumer impact (Fortunato, 2013; Roy, 2011; Walker & Kent, 2009; Watt, 2010). This unity is however blurring traditional sponsorship boundaries and impacting the neat classification of sponsorship activity. This progression of sponsorship into hybrid forms of identity is reflective of a domain in a state of transformation and in need of evolved understanding.

Theories relating to the need for congruency (Chien et al., 2011; Fleck & Quester, 2007; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008) and the process of image transfer (Grohs & Reisinger, 2005; Gwinner et al., 2009; Meenaghan, 2001b) in sponsorship as well as perceived sponsor sincerity (Alay, 2008; Speed & Thompson, 2000) are well developed and supported throughout the literature. Consumer involvement was also identified as an important moderator of sponsorship effects and

is considered a multi-dimensional construct that can significantly vary by consumer segment (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012; Close et al., 2006; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Ko et al., 2008). Comparing involvement levels across different consumer groups (such as gender) and understanding the corresponding impact of this variable on sponsorship response is drawing increased research attention.

Researchers strongly advocate for further strategic evaluation of sponsorship efforts. Simply relying on awareness measures is generally regarded as insufficient to accurately capture the potential consumer impact of modern sponsorship campaigns (Crompton, 2004; O'Reilly & Madill, 2009; Sneath et al., 2005). The hierarchy of effects model was revealed as a primary theoretical framework adopted throughout the literature to measure consumer response at the cognitive, affective, and behavioural stages (Alay, 2008; Chanavat et al., 2009; Prendergast et al., 2010; Speed & Thompson, 2000). An analysis of thirty-three general sponsorship effect studies; fifteen cause-affiliated marketing studies; and twelve gender-based sponsorship response studies corroborate the view that sponsorship can impact consumers at all levels of effect.

The review of sponsorship activation and the growing observance of purposeful ambush attempts highlighted important trends in sponsorship practice. Sponsorship is an increasingly cluttered landscape that requires creativity, experiential consumer exchange and full integration in order to provide a compelling point of differentiation in a competitive marketplace (Bal et al., 2009; DeGaris et al., 2009; O'Keefe et al., 2009). Simple logo placement once deemed acceptable as sponsorship activation is no longer enough to motivate consumers. Social media, reciprocal engagement, and the emotional leverage of meaningful properties (sports, causes, etc.) are acknowledged trends in the most recent sponsorship findings (Cahill & Meenaghan, 2013; Meenaghan et al., 2013; Steyn, 2009). Sponsorship is still considered to be a young and

evolving field with ample opportunity for the discovery and contribution of new knowledge. Much of the current understanding of sponsorship has been derived from experimental settings prompting more recent appeals for greater external validity through realistic field-based studies (Close & Lacey, 2013; Gwinner et al., 2009).

The review of cause-related sources confirmed that corporate connection to cause is a growing and credible means of brand marketing. Goodness is indeed required and rewarded for organizations that truly commit to long-term, fitting partnerships that leverage or enhance the emotional involvement of consumers (Fortunato, 2013; Plewa & Quester, 2011; Pope, 2010). The tangible benefits of cause-related efforts have incited a surge in corporate-cause partnerships thereby creating some clutter and blurring of sectors (as also noted in the main sponsorship review). Success therefore requires strategic thought and execution. Among these key strategic decisions, is the selection of sponsorship partners.

The societal importance, massive reach and emotion of sport (at all levels) render it a natural conduit to goodness (Roy, 2011; Walker & Kent, 2009; Watt, 2010). The unity of business, sport, and cause at both participant and spectator-based events is increasingly common and effective at communicating shared values and delivering mutual gain for all involved parties. Sponsorship effects in such increasingly popular settings however remain under-investigated. According to Walker and Kent (2009), "while the study of CSR has become increasingly prevalent in the management and organizational behavior literature, the concept has only recently entered the sport management discourse" (p.746).

The examination of cause-affiliated marketing progressed from the broader sponsorship review and was afforded individual consideration due to the significance of the CSR movement and the

many facets of cause that seep beyond the confines of sponsorship application. A broad introduction of CSR was channeled to focus on the main tenants of cause sponsorship. The benefits to the nonprofit sector distinguish cause from other types of alliances and compound the potential for emotional involvement and leverage (Hyllegard et al., 2011; Menon & Kahn, 2003). The sponsor-sponsee partnership is expanded in these cases to include a third-party cause. Consumers value this additional interest and demand transparency in charitable dealings (Cone, 2001a). As in other forms of reviewed sponsorship, the significance of fit, perceived sincerity, and involvement as a multidimensional construct were stressed in the review of cause (Chang, 2012; Close & Lacey, 2013; Pearsall, 2009; Roy, 2011; Zdravkovic et al., 2010). Although not yet thoroughly tested, the literature (Funk et al., 2001) suggests that involvement can be gender-based and that women may respond more favourably to opportunities to be involved with and/or support other women (through cause, sport, etc.).

In order to further assess consumer response, fifteen additional consumer effects studies were considered in the context of cause and were found to support the developing proposition that cause partnerships effectively motivate consumers at all levels of the hierarchy of effects (Chang, 2012; Filo et al., 2010; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Lacey et al., 2010; Walker & Kent, 2009). Forty percent of these studies considered gender and found that women (in particular mothers) are more receptive and impacted by cause efforts. The prevalence of gender consideration in cause effect studies is observed mainly in more recent publications (since 2000) and is in need of reinforcement.

Cornwell and Coote (2005) recognized a critical disconnect between increased industry spending in cause sponsorship and corresponding research efforts, claiming that “the sponsorship of cause is all but ignored” (p.268). Pharr and Lough (2012) more recently also acknowledged that

although CSR has been the focus of academic research since the early 1980s, CSR in sport has only recently begun to receive research attention. The need to better understand consumer response to cause marketing efforts is strongly advocated (Geue & Plewa, 2010; Irwin et al., 2003; Lacey et al., 2010; Walker & Kent, 2009) as is the persistent knowledge gaps in the application of CSR in the area of sport (Chang, 2012; Filo et al., 2010; Lachowetz & Gladden, 2003; Pharr & Lough, 2012; Plewa & Quester, 2011). The majority of CRSM or CRSS findings have been spectator based, highlighting the need for expanded consideration at the growing participant level (Taylor & Shanka, 2008; Wood et al., 2010). The role of gender in response to cause associated marketing efforts is also being noticed, and given the increasing influence of women, is expected to draw more research attention (Ross et al., 1992; Wheeler, 2009).

The third section of the literature review considered gender differences in consumer behaviour. Gender is an important construct in marketing as it remains the most common basis for consumer segmentation (Perreault et al., 2007; Putrevu, 2001). Marketers also recognize the enormous profit potential in targeting the lucrative female consumer market (Barletta, 2006; Skoloda, 2009; Silverstein & Sayre, 2009). As such, understanding meaningful gender differences is of great interest and concern for marketing scholars and practitioners.

Women and men are indeed different in many significant ways. The selectivity model is well grounded in the reviewed literature and suggests that women are more comprehensive information processors while men are more selective in the information that they consider and the pace at which they make decisions (Meyers-Levy, 1989). Women are believed to devote more effort to gathering and evaluated broad sources of information and opinions that aid in making the most perfect decisions (Green & Antoine, 2011). In comparison, men are considered more likely to streamline their decision-making, considering only a subset of readily available

information and relying mainly on existing knowledge (Wajda et al., 2008). A key point in applying the selectivity hypothesis, however, is that these patterns are subject to situational influences (Darley & Smith, 1995). Men will engage in more elaborate processing if they are adequately prompted to do so. Sport may serve as such a prompt.

Sport has long been used to reach and engage avid male athletes and sport fans. It was not until the 1990s that savvy marketers began to recognize the untapped opportunity to connect with the increasingly lucrative female market through the uncluttered and progressively meaningful medium of sport (Shani et al., 1992; Rubel, 1995). Sport is relevant in women's lives. Sport connects women to other women and to social causes that they care about. Sport is the basis for meaningful and at times, fanatical relationships. Involvement (or fan identification) is a key lever in consumer response and it is proposed that the strength of this influence is magnified by the blending of two passion points; sport and cause. The marriage of sport and cause is particularly attractive to women but has received minimal research attention (Irwin et al., 2003; Roy & Graeff, 2003).

This examination of literature dedicated particular attention to consumer processing of sponsorship. The SEQ was identified as a valid and reliable measurement of consumer response to sponsorship. Speed and Thompson (2000) used this questionnaire with a student sample in Australia while Alay (2008) employed it with female students in Turkey. There remains ample opportunity to integrate these measurement scales in examining Canadian events (such as cause-related sport) that engage on-site spectators and/or participants of both genders.

Gender congruency was also noted throughout the reviewed literature with findings suggesting that women trust women and seek to support female sports and causes (Bennett et al., 2007;

Edwards & La Ferle, 2009; Funk et al., 2001; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Sack & Fried, 2001). Whether gender solidarity is a factor in female sponsorship response was not revealed through this extensive review of existing literature, thereby establishing a meaningful line of inquiry.

The literature insists that further attention and investigation are required to better understand the many dimensions surrounding the dynamics of women and sport. Specifically, research is needed in the areas of women's sports fans and spectators (Bush et al., 2007; Kahle et al, 2003; Ridinger & Funk, 2006), the sponsorship of women's sports (Sack & Fried, 2001; Shaw & Amis, 2001) as well as gender effects in sponsorship (Dodds et al., 2014; McDaniel & Kinney, 1998; McDaniel, 1999). Pegoraro (2009) articulated this need, stating that, "The question facing us all is how best to use sponsorship to connect with the ever-increasing valuable female consumer segment" (p.300). Presuming that involvement levels will be elevated by sheer event attendance, Kinney et al. (2008) advocated for on-site data collection as Bush et al. (2007) suggested that samples be extended to the Canadian market. The blending of sport and cause in an effort to reach and engage women is also recommended as an area in need of initiating insight (Lough & Irwin, 2001; Pegoraro, O'Reilly, & Levallet, 2009).

Table 12 summarizes ten principal findings derived from the reviewed literature that guided the development of this dissertation.

Table 12: Summary of Guiding Literary Findings

Guiding Literary Findings	Application to Dissertation
1. Sponsorship is evolving with the blending of sport and cause at all levels of sport (i.e. grassroots, collegiate, professional). CRSS is only beginning to draw research attention.	This dissertation focuses on the emerging area of cause-related sport sponsorship. Various levels of the sport of hockey (both women and men's) were considered as well as a variety of causes (cancer and social) linked to these specific events.

2. Several variables were identified as determinants of sponsorship response. These include: status of event, liking of event, attitude to event, sponsor-event fit, attitude to sponsor, sincerity of sponsor, ubiquity of sponsor, and image of sponsor. Involvement is a key multidimensional construct that also predicts sponsorship response.	The focus of this dissertation is consumer response to sponsorship. The primary motivations identified through the reviewed literature guided the selection of variables to be measured. While elements of involvement were considered by others, this study heightens the focus of this consumer variable from both a sport and cause perspective at a mix of both female and male-based hockey events linked to different types of charitable causes.
3. The hierarchy of effects model is a prevalent tool to measure sponsorship response.	The hierarchy of effects model guided the measurement of consumer response in terms of; i) interest; ii) favourability; and iii) use. Reliable scales from previous studies (Speed & Thompson, 2000; Alay, 2008; 2010) were adapted to best fit the context of this study.
4. Women value corporate goodness and respond to sincere cause associations.	Cause/charity associations were inherent in all sampled sport venues. Perceived sincerity of the sponsor was considered among the predictors of sponsorship outcomes.
5. Women are increasingly involved in sport while their sport consumption differs from that of men.	Women's involvement with sport was measured alongside their involvement with cause to establish a more robust view of consumer involvement. Similar metrics were collected for men in order to draw meaningful gender comparisons.
6. Gender solidarity in the form of women supporting women is suggested but untested in the context of sponsorship research.	Gender support is introduced in this study as a consumer factor in the sponsorship process and is independently considered for both genders (i.e., women supporting women, women supporting men, men supporting women, men supporting men). This gender support variable was measured and contrasted at both women and men's sporting events. In order to partially control for sport variance, the studied sport (hockey) was consistent in all tested spectator sponsored events.
7. The Sponsorship Evaluation Scale (SES) is a valid and reliable instrument to measure the effects of sponsorship.	The SES was used as appropriate in the development of applicable measurement scales.
8. The effect of gender in sponsorship response has received limited research attention.	The purpose of this dissertation is to further the understanding of consumer response to sponsorship. Gender comparisons of main effects

	and interactions of key sponsorship determinants provide insight into the magnitude of gender differences in sponsorship outcomes.
9. Many sponsorship investigations are experiment-based in controlled settings. There is a need to capture consumer response in more realistic field settings.	In order to capture the essence of the actual sponsorship experience, data was collected from spectators at multiple charity-linked hockey events.
10. There is a noted absence of Canadian-based sponsorship effects studies.	This study collected data from five different CRSS events across three different Canadian cities in the province of Ontario.

3.2 Development of Conceptual Framework

The analysis of existing theories presented through this review of literature guided the development of a conceptual framework of relationships that were investigated through this current study. This inquiry is grounded in the theoretical framework originally introduced by Speed and Thompson (2000) and later extended and validated by Alay (2008; 2010). Adopting a classical conditioning framework, Speed and Thompson (2000) tested six independent variables as determinants of sponsorship response (measured by the three dependent variables of interest, favorability and use). Alay (2008) added two additional independent measures (attitude to event and image of sponsor) for a total of eight independent variables measuring the same three levels of sponsorship response in accordance with the hierarchy of effects model. As previously detailed, these earlier investigations confirmed significant relationships between these factors and sponsorship response.

The proposed framework in Figure 5 omits variables strongly supported in previous models (such as status of event, attitude to sponsor, image of sponsor and ubiquity of sponsor) in order to introduce and focus on consumer elements proposed to be of particular importance to a female

audience and previously unexamined in the proposed sponsorship setting of cause-related sport. Gender is the principal component driving this inquiry and, as such, all proposed relationships in the sponsorship process were tested for significant gender influence. Personal involvement is also central to this proposed framework and was considered on two levels: i) involvement with the sport, and ii) involvement with the cause. It is important to note that earlier models also acknowledged forms of personal relevance or involvement (i.e., personal liking of event, attitude to event) under the grouping of "event factors". Given the multidimensional nature of involvement as well as potential gender interactions with this variable, involvement in this model is considered as a separate consumer construct that mediates consumer perceptions and ultimately consumer response to sponsorship. As noted, an extensive review of sponsorship literature did not reveal any studies that have considered the influence of gender solidarity on sponsorship response. The importance of gender support however was strongly conveyed through efforts in the areas of marketing to women, sport management, and cause marketing and is therefore introduced in this model as a possible influence on sponsorship outcomes. Sponsorship factors include sponsor-event fit and perceived sincerity of the sponsor and are preserved as in past models given the importance of these variables in previous studies. Sponsorship response is the final stage of this examined process and measurement of these outcomes conforms to the well-established hierarchy of effects model. Consumer cognition is measured through interest in the sponsor, affection is assessed through sponsor favourability, and behavioural effects are tracked through consumers' intended use of the sponsor's offerings.

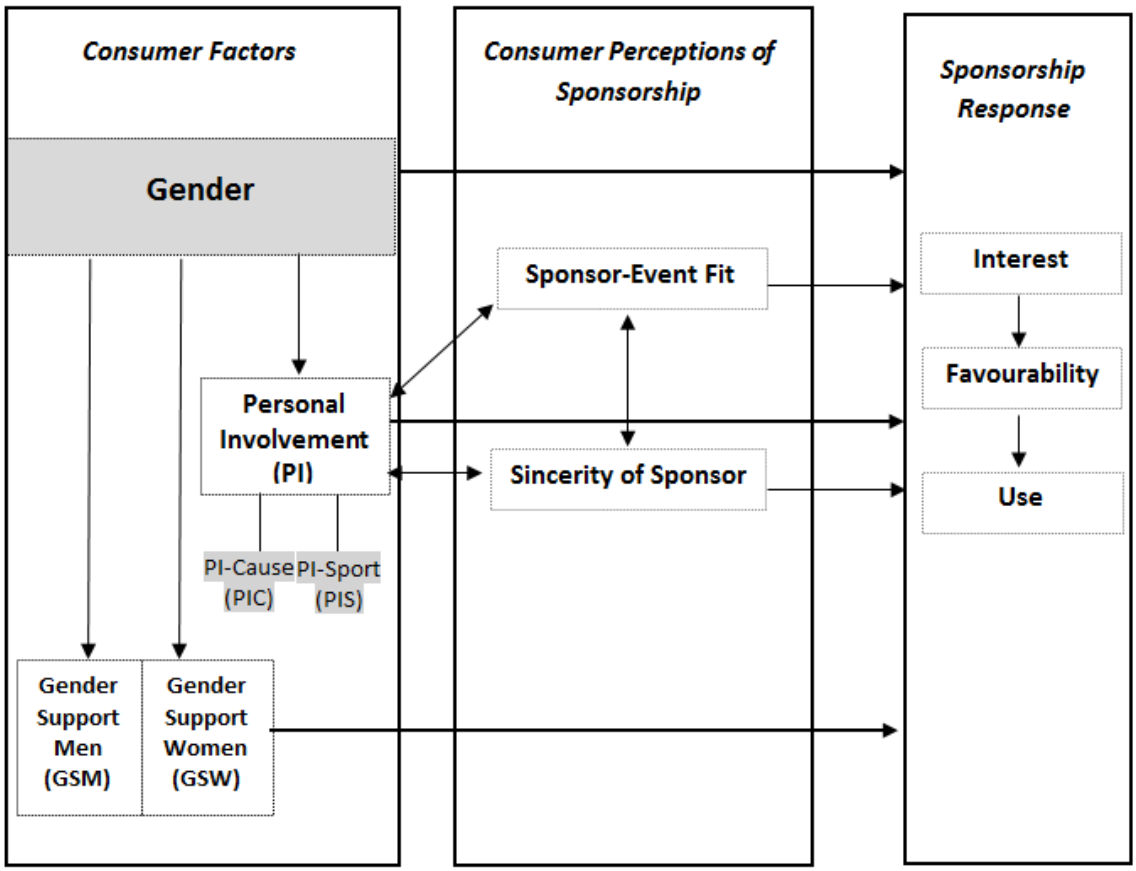

Figure 5: Conceptual Framework for Current Study – Consumer Processing of CRSS

Chapter 4

4.0 Research Hypotheses and Methodology

This chapter begins by formalizing the purpose of this dissertation. The hypothesized relationships captured in the proposed framework of consumer processing of CRSS are then developed followed by a detailed account of the design and methods used to fulfill the stated purpose of this dissertation.

4.1 Research Purpose

The purpose of this dissertation is two-fold. First, this research contributes to an understanding of the effects of the emerging area of cause-related sport sponsorship on consumer perceptions and responsiveness in terms of sponsor interest, favourability, and intended use. Second, this investigation examines the potential influence of gender at all stages of the sponsorship process. The proposed model highlights multiple paths of possible influence for both women and men to process sponsorship factors and to respond at the various levels of effect, leading to the investigation of the relationship between five possible predictors of sponsorship response. These include gender, personal involvement (with sport and with cause), gender support (for women and for men), sponsor-event fit, and perceived sincerity of the sponsor.

4.2 Hypotheses Development

There are three categories of variables from which the hypotheses for this study were formed. The categories are: a) consumer factors (gender, personal involvement with the sport, personal involvement with the cause, gender support for women, gender support for men), b) sponsorship factors (sponsor-event fit, and perceived sincerity of the sponsor), and c) sponsorship response

in accordance with the hierarchy of effects (interest, favourability, and use). Eleven hypotheses were developed grounded in these categories. Each proposed relationship was also tested for possible gender influence in an effort to highlight any significant differences between the processing and response of women and men in the context of this cause-related sport sponsorship investigation.

A. Consumer Factors:

Published studies have demonstrated that involvement levels in sport settings can vary significantly by gender and that sponsorship response is positively linked to high involvement. Several cases have found male involvement in sport to exceed that of females (James & Ridinger, 2002; Kinney et al., 2008; Pham, 1992). Cause involvement however is suggested to generally favour females. Female involvement with cause has been shown to exceed male involvement and positively influence attitudes and intentions to purchase sponsors' brands (Berger et al., 1999; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Ross et al., 1992; Roy & Graeff, 2003). Given that all investigated sporting events also incorporated a strong cause connection, it is hypothesized that the interactions between tested constructs will be stronger for women than for men. This strong stance in terms of gender expectations reflects the charitable emphasis and cause-themed promotion of the examined venues. In terms of sponsorship outcomes, consumer involvement or identification with sport or cause has also been proven to have both a direct and indirect effect on consumer responsiveness (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012; Berger et al., 1999; Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Donahay & Risenberger, 2007; Ko et al., 2008; Lings & Owen, 2007; Madrigal, 2001; Maxwell & Lough, 2009; O'Keeffe & Zawadzka, 2011). Guided by this learning, the following consumer factor hypotheses are presented:

H1: Females are more highly involved with cause (PIC) than males at charity-linked sporting events.

H2: Males are more highly involved with sport (PIS) than females at charity-linked sporting events.

There is growing proposition that women strive to show gender solidarity by supporting other women in business and in sport (Bennett et al., 2007; Edwards & La Ferle, 2009; Funk et al., 2001; PME Enterprise, 2011; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Sack & Fried, 2001). The notion of gender solidarity as an influence on sponsorship response has not yet been considered in the context of sponsorship research. This study will consider levels of gender support by both female and male respondents at a variety of women and men's charity-linked hockey events. The following hypotheses are proposed regarding this new construct of gender support:

H3: Females are more supportive of women's sport and causes/charities (GSW) than are males.

H4: Males are more supportive of men's sporting events and men's charitable/social causes (GSM) than are females.

B. <u>Consumer Perceptions of Sponsorship:</u>

Event-sponsor fit is the extent to which an attendee perceives that the event and its sponsor have a similar image and a logical connection. The need for perceived fit between sponsors and events as a determinant of favourable sponsorship response is widely supported (Alay, 2008; Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Close & Lacey, 2013; Fleck & Quester, 2007; Grohs et al., 2004; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Johar & Pham, 1999; McDaniel, 1999; Speed & Thompson,

2000). Involvement as a precursor to perceived fit has also been explored and validated in previous sport sponsorship studies (Grohs & Reisinger, 2005; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Gwinner et al., 2009). Gwinner and Bennett (2008) concluded that highly identified sport fans have a greater ability to identify sponsor-event fit and are more likely to modify their thinking in order to ensure an acceptable fit. Through an investigation of football fans, Gwinner et al. (2009) confirmed that high levels of team involvement and strong perceived fit lead to higher levels of image transfer and purchase intention. With respect to sponsor-event fit, it is therefore expected that:

H5a: Personal involvement (PI) has a direct and positive effect on perceived sponsor-event fit (FIT) in charity-linked sport settings.

H5b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of PI*FIT and the effect is greater for women.

The sponsorship literature supports a significant relationship between involvement and perceived sponsor sincerity. Meenaghan (2001b) concluded that highly involved fans develop a sense of gratitude toward sponsors (i.e. corporate halo) which in turn drives purchase intent. When consumers perceive sponsors to be genuine and sincere in their sponsorship efforts, favourable consumer response has been commonly observed (Alay, 2008; Meenaghan, 2001b; Speed & Thompson, 2000). Based on these recognitions, the following is hypothesized:

H6a: Personal involvement (PI) has a direct and positive effect on perceived sincerity (SINC) of the sponsor in charity-linked sport settings.

H6b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of PI *SINC and the effect is greater for women.

C. Sponsorship Response:

Based on the rationale presented above, the five predictors of sponsorship outcomes (GENDER, PI, GSW, FIT, and SINC) are all expected to directly and positively influence the three levels of sponsorship response.

H7a: Personal involvement (PI) has a direct and positive effect on sponsorship response (INT, FAV, and/or USE) in charity-linked sport settings.

H7b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of PI*INT, PI*FAV, and PI*USE and the effect is greater for women.

H8a: Perceived sponsor-event fit (FIT) has a direct and positive effect on sponsorship response (INT, FAV and/or USE) in charity-linked sport settings.

H8b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of FIT* INT, FIT*FAV, and FIT*USE and the effect is greater for women.

H9a: Perceived sincerity (SINC) of the sponsor has a direct and positive effect on sponsorship response (INT, FAV and/or USE) in charity-linked sport settings.

H9b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of SINC*INT, SINC*FAV, and SINC*USE and the effect is greater for women.

H10a: Gender support for women (GSW) has a direct and positive effect on women's sponsorship response (INT, FAV, and/or USE).

H10b: Gender support for women (GSW) has a greater influence on women's sponsorship response (INT, FAV, and/or USE) at female sporting events than at male sporting events.

This dissertation aims to discover new insights regarding gender differences in sponsorship response specific to the emerging area of CRSS. Favourable female response has been certified in sport sponsorship (McDaniel, 1999; McDaniel & Kinney, 1999), cause partnerships (Berger et al., 1999; Cone, 2010a; Ross et al., 1992) and to a lesser extend in CRSS settings (Irwin et al., 2003). These existing findings of positive female response lead to the following final hypothesis:

H11: Direct sponsorship response (INT, FAV and/or USE) at charity-linked sporting events is stronger among female spectators than male spectators.

These hypothesized relationships are reflected in the conceptual framework of consumer processing of CRSS presented in Figure 6.

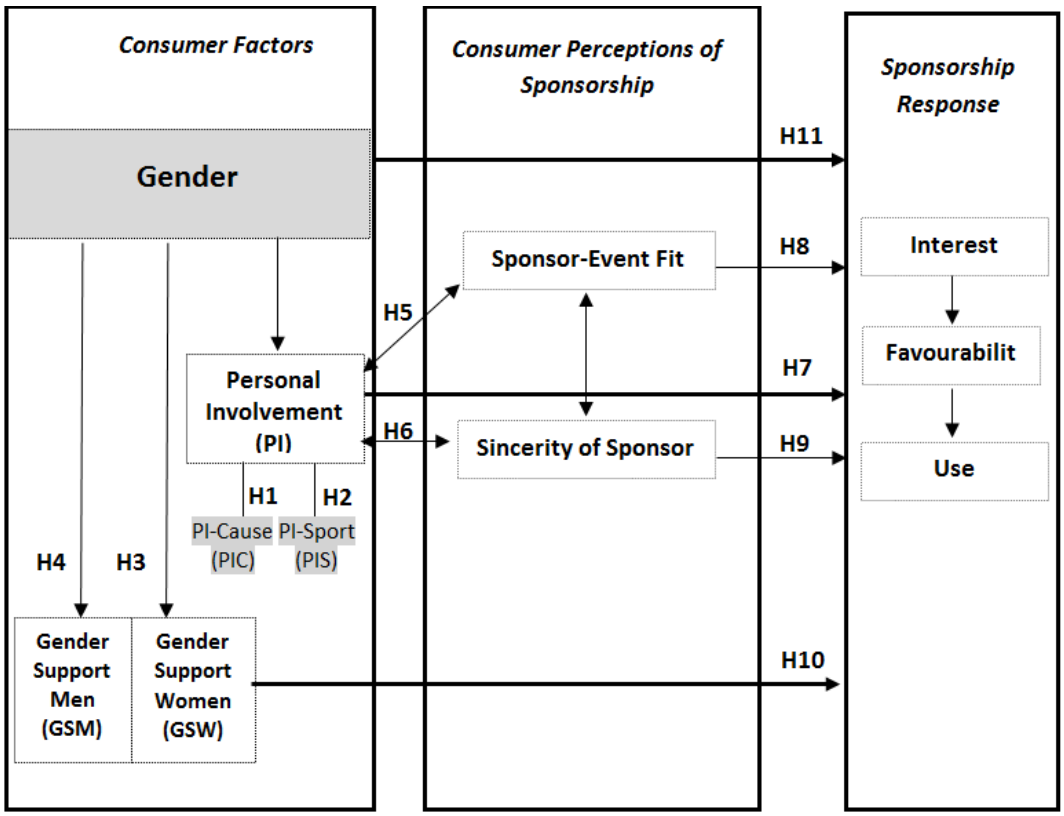

Figure 6: Consumer Processing of CRSS - Hypothesized Relationships

4.3 Research Design and Methodology

In order to contribute to the latest understanding of sponsorship marketing, this study was designed to: i) intercept consumers at the point of field-based sponsorship consumption, ii) focus specifically on the emerging practice of cause-related sport sponsorship, and iii) secure balanced input from both women and men in order to allow for meaningful gender comparisons. Details of the methods implemented to empirically test the proposed framework of cause-related sport sponsorship response are described below.

Research Participants

Participants of this study were spectators at a variety of charity-linked hockey events taking place during the period of October to December 2013 across three different cities in Ontario,

Canada. Respondents were consenting adults (i.e., minimum of 18 years old) and included representation of both male and female spectators. A total of 670 individuals attending charity-linked hockey events participated in this study. Twenty-eight of these surveys were incomplete and discarded for the purpose of analysis. The combined sample size for all tested events was therefore 642 with near balanced gender representation (48.9% female, 49.7% male, and 1.4% unanswered gender). Women's participation levels were greatest at the two female hockey events (56.4% and 64.7% of sample) while men's participation (64.2% of event sample) outpaced that of women's at the NHL game. The NHL event provided the largest sample size (n=215) followed by the OHL game (n=167). The women's OUA Pink the Rink games had similar sample sizes (n=101, n=99) while the first men's OUA event generated the smallest response (n=60). Table 13 below summarizes the number of respondents who completed this survey at each of the five investigated venues.

Table 13: Number of Participants at the Five Investigated CRSS Events

Event / Cause	Female		Male		Gender - Unanswered		Total	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
1. OUA Men's Hockey/ Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation (CBCF)	35	58.3	25	41.7	0	0	60	100
2. OUA Women's Hockey / Northern Cancer Research Foundation (NCRF)	57	56.4	42	41.6	2	2	101	100
3. OUA Women's Hockey / CBCF	64	64.7	34	34.3	1	1	99	100

4. NHL Hockey / Food Bank	73	33.9	138	64.2	4	1.9	215	100
5. OHL Hockey / Salvation Army	85	50.9	80	47.9	2	1.2	167	100
Total	**314**	**48.9**	**319**	**49.7**	**9**	**1.4**	**642**	**100**

Measurement Scales

The review of literature undertaken for this dissertation identified suitable research instruments for the purpose of this quantitative study. In order to best fit the context of this particular field-based consumer intercept study, some minor wording modifications and content reductions were necessary. The original draft questionnaire was compiled from various published studies in contributing fields. Members of this dissertation committee were instrumental in providing feedback through public defense of this dissertation proposal. A second draft questionnaire was tested for proper construction, content validity, and accurate interpretation from an expert panel consisting of nine academic professionals. A second pre-test of a revised version of the questionnaire was then verified with a consumer panel of 33 individuals. This final stage of instrument testing was implemented through an e-mail invitation to 50 members of the author's personal network who fit the profile of research participants for this study. Final revisions were made to the questionnaire reflecting feedback obtained from this consumer panel.

Table 14 lists the literature sources used to construct the various sections of this 25 question survey. Required data for this study consists of six main sections:

i) demographic profile of respondents (including gender, age, income, and number of dependent children),

ii) personal involvement levels with both the sport of hockey and the cause specific to the event attended,

iii) perceptions of sponsor-event fit,

iv) gender support for women and for men (in terms of sport and cause),

v) perceived sincerity of the sponsor, and

vi) sponsorship response measured through interest in the sponsor, favourability toward the sponsor, and intended use/purchase of the sponsor's offerings.

Apart from the four demographic profile questions (measured as nominal data), all items were measured on five-point Likert interval scales anchored by Strongly Disagree (1) and Strongly Agree (5).

Personal Involvement

This research is situated in sporting events linked to charitable causes. Personal involvement therefore was assessed from both a sport and a cause perspective. Bennett et al.'s (2007) involvement with charity scale (Cronbach's alpha=.91) was used to measure three items of personal involvement with the cause. As charitable partnerships varied by event, these questions were adjusted to reflect the name of the specific charities involved at each venue. The sport of hockey was consistent in all test sites. Access to events for the purpose of data collection influenced the original selection of the sport of hockey. This evolved, however, into a deliberate strategy to focus on a singular sport in order to minimize potential sport bias and to allow for purer contrasting of female and male spectators of a common sport (James & Ridinger, 2002). Measuring involvement in sport often involves consideration for both elements of attraction to the sport as well as measures of centrality to determine the importance of this activity in the lives

of respondents (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012; Funk, Ridinger, & Moorman, 2004; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992; Stewart, Smith, & Nicholson, 2003; Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009). McIntyre and Pigram's (1992) scales were used to measure three items of personal involvement with the sport of hockey. This included two measures of centrality and one measure of attraction. These same scales were used by Tsiotsou and Alexandris (2009) in a similar investigation of sponsorship outcomes that registered internal consistency for involvement-attraction of α=0.74 and involvement-centrality of α=0.84.

Gender Support

Including gender support as a determinant of sponsorship response is a new approach unexamined in the reviewed sponsorship literature. Cornwell and Coote's (2005) measures of motivation for participation in a fundraising race provided some direction in developing two items to measure: i) support for women's / men's sport, and ii) support for women's /men's charitable or social causes.

Sponsor-Event Fit, Perceived Sincerity of the Sponsor, and Sponsorship Response

As noted, consumer perception of sponsor-event fit has been well tested in sport sponsorship research. In this investigation of CRSS, the Sponsorship Evaluation Scales (SES) originally developed by Speed and Thompson (2000) and later validated by Alay (2008; 2010) were used to measure three items of sponsor-event fit. Reliability of Alay's (2010) scale was reported at α=0.92. As with personal involvement with the cause, sponsors varied by event and therefore this question was adjusted to reflect the main sponsor involved at each venue. The SES were also relied upon to measure two items of perceived sincerity of the sponsor (reported Cronbach's alpha =0.76) as well as the three levels of sponsorship response (i.e., interest in the sponsor,

favourability toward the sponsor, and intent to use the sponsor's offerings). Alay (2010) reported strong internal consistency (α=0.95) for all of the above measures of sponsorship response.

Table 14: Questionnaire Development

Construct	Number of Items	Sources	Survey Questions
Demographic Profile	4		Included gender, age range, income range, number of children in household
Involvement with the cause	3	-Bennett, Mousley, Kitchin & Ali-Choudhury (2007) -Bennett & Gabriel (1999)	1. I regularly feel that I want to become involved in events that support the charity/cause *(specify the specific cause)* associated with this game. 2. My decision to attend this charity-linked hockey game was mainly determined by my desire to help *(specify cause)*. 3. Supporting a charity gives me a sense of satisfaction.
Involvement with the sport of hockey	3	-Tsiotsou & Alexandris, (2009; 2012) -McIntyre & Pigram (1992) -Funk, Ridinger, & Moorman (2004) -Gwinner & Swanson (2003) -Stewart, Nicholson, & Smith (2003)	1. Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is an important part of my life. 2. Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is one of the most enjoyable activities for me. 3. Most of my friends are in some way connected with hockey.
Gender support for women Gender support for men	2 2	Cornwell & Coote, 2005 (adapted from Motivations for Participation scale to include both sport and cause)	1. It is important for me to show support for women's sporting events. 2. It is important for me to show support for women's charitable/social causes. 1. It is important for me to show support for men's sporting events. 2. It is important for me to show support for men's charitable/social causes.

Event-sponsor fit	3	Sponsorship Evaluation Scale (SES); Speed & Thompson (2000); Alay, (2008; 2010)	1. There is a logical connection (or association) between this charity-linked hockey game and the main sponsor *(specify sponsor).* 2. The image of this event *(specify event)* and the image of the main sponsor (*specify sponsor*) are similar. 3. It makes sense to me that this organization *(specify sponsor)* sponsors a charity-linked hockey event.
Perceived sincerity	2	Sponsorship Evaluation Scales (SES); Speed & Thompson (2000); Alay, (2008;2010)	1. The main reason that the sponsor *(specify sponsor)* is involved in this event is that they believe that charitable sporting events deserve support. 2. The sponsor of this event *(specify sponsor)* likely has the best interest of the cause at heart.
Interest	2	Sponsorship Evaluation Scales (SES); Speed & Thompson (2000); Alay (2008; 2010)	1. This sponsorship makes me more likely to notice the sponsor's name *(specify sponsor)* on other occasions than I might otherwise. 2. This sponsorship makes me more likely to pay attention to *(specify sponsor)*'s advertising and other promotions than I might otherwise.
Favour	2	Sponsorship Evaluation Scales (SES); Speed & Thompson (2000); Alay (2008; 2010)	1. Sponsorship of this charity-linked hockey event makes me feel more favorable toward *(specify sponsor)* than I might otherwise. 2. This sponsorship improves my perception of *(specify sponsor)* more than I might otherwise.
Use	2	Sponsorship Evaluation Scales (SES); Speed & Thompson (2000); Alay (2008; 2010).	1. This sponsorship makes me more likely to consider *(specify sponsor)* the next time I am in need of *(specify sponsor's offering)*. 2. I am more likely to buy the sponsoring company's products/services as a result of their sponsorship of this charity-linked hockey event.
Total Items	**25**		

As explained above, the questionnaire was adapted slightly for each of the investigated events in order to specify the main sponsor and supported charity or cause. In total, five versions of the questionnaire were therefore used in the collection of data. Each event survey is presented as Appendices A through E.

Data Collection

Natural field settings are an emerging method to examine the realistic dynamics of sponsorship and event-based marketing (Armstrong, 2001; Bennett et al., 2009; Close & Lacey, 2013; Gwinner et al., 2009; Irwin et al., 2003; Maxwell & Lough, 2009; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Sack & Fried, 2001; Walker & Kent, 2009). A key objective of this research was to capture consumer perceptions at the point of sponsorship consumption. With a focus on the growing trend of sporting events associated with charitable causes, many possible opportunities were considered and efforts made to gain access for the purpose of data collection. Twenty-two different organizations were contacted and presented with a proposal to support this research through access to suitable CRSS events. Events were selected based on research fit as well as timing to accommodate fall collection and the ability of the researcher to travel to events. Efforts to secure event access took place from June through November 2013 and resulted in admission to five suitable events. These events included two women's hockey games and three men's games and spanned three levels of hockey including collegiate (i.e., OUA), major junior (i.e., OHL), and professional (i.e., NHL). While the investigated sport of hockey was constant at all events, the associated causes varied across the investigated settings. Data was gathered at events in three cities across Ontario (North Bay, Sudbury and Ottawa). Table 15 details the events and corresponding sponsors and charities at which data were collected for this research. To note, none of the main sponsors were overtly gender-skewed. At Event #1 (i.e., Nipissing University

Real Men Wear Pink), there was not a title sponsor but rather a variety of regular season sponsors. As such, the questionnaire for this event did not specify a specific sponsor (as in the case of the other four events) but rather generally referred to "event sponsors" in measuring consumer perceptions of this particular sponsorship. This case is referred to as an "unspecified sponsor" in Table 15 below.

Table 15: Data Collection Events

Event	Sport	Cause	Sponsor	Date	Location	Est. Attendance
1. Nipissing University Real Men Wear Pink (NU-RMWP)	Men's OUA Hockey	Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation	Unspecified	October 18, 2013	North Bay	1090
2. Laurentian University Pink the Rink (LU-PTR)	Women's OUA Hockey	Northern Cancer Research Foundation	Deluxe Hamburgers	November 2, 2013	Sudbury	350
3. Nipissing University Pink the Rink (NU-PTR)	Women's OUA Hockey	Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation	True North Chevrolet Cadillac	November 9, 2013	North Bay	600
4. Ottawa Senators Food Drive Night	Men's NHL Hockey	Ottawa Food Bank	Canadian Tire	December 12, 2013	Ottawa	15,578
5. Sudbury Wolves Teddy Bear Toss	Men's OHL Hockey	Salvation Army Toy Drive	Travelodge Hotel	December 15, 2013	Sudbury	4,148

Procedures

The procedures employed to collect data were approved by the Research Ethics Boards of both Laurentian University and Nipissing University to ensure that all research-related activities

respected the ethical principles of free and informed consent, privacy, confidentiality and minimum risk. Participant recruitment took place through event intercepts (upon entry to the game, during intermissions, in common areas, and upon exit) with spectators at the selected charity-linked hockey games. A team of trained research assistants were employed to support in the collection of data. The research team wore identification badges to clearly distinguish their role at these events. The number of data collectors varied according to event size with a minimum of three at the smallest event and a team of eight engaged at the largest venue. A research table was set up in the main entrance and was hosted by at least two members of the research team. Other data collectors roamed approved areas to recruit as many suitable participants as possible to complete the survey. Spectators were first screened to ensure that they were of minimum age (i.e., 18) and then invited to complete the brief survey with an estimated completion time of 5-10 minutes. All interested individuals were assured of the voluntary and confidential nature of this study and presented with a consent form (see Appendix F) that was explained by the researchers. The consent form was modified for each event to include a unique link to the e-survey in cases where respondents would prefer to complete the survey independently or at a different time. Willing participants were then given the option to complete the questionnaire through paper format or through an e-survey (hosted on the Canadian server of FluidSurvey) and accessible through iPads carried by members of the research team. As an incentive for participation, a draw for an iPad Mini was also incorporated into this study. A gender-neutral prize was chosen to avoid biased gender participation. Upon completion of the survey, participants were presented with a paper draw ballot or prompted with an e-ballot if completing the survey by iPad. Approximately 30% of respondents opted for the e-questionnaire presented through the iPad.

Chapter 5

5.0 Results

This chapter presents the results from this study and details the statistical analyses undertaken to test the stated hypotheses and the proposed model of consumer processing of CRSS. Analyses were performed at four levels of sample investigation: i) the total all-events sample, ii) spectators of women's hockey events versus spectators of men's hockey events, ii) respondents at cancer-cause events versus respondents at social-cause events, and iv) attendees at the five individual CRSS hockey events. Both women and men were part of each investigated spectator sample. Gender was treated as an independent variable while other variables (personal involvement, gender-support, sponsor-event fit and sincerity of the sponsor) were assigned dual roles as either independent or dependent variables contingent on the hypothesis being tested. Sponsor interest, favourability and use were dependent variables in all investigated scenarios. This section is organized into four parts: i) initial analysis, ii) demographic characteristics and sample treatment rationale, iii) hypotheses testing, and iv) model testing.

5.1 Initial Analysis

Raw data collected from all five sampled events were entered into SPSS (version 21). This consisted of a total of 642 entries after discarding 20 incomplete surveys. Before beginning analysis, data was checked for errors by inspecting frequencies for all variables. One input error was found and corrected.

Reliability refers to the internal consistency of a measurement scale. In selecting the measures for this particular study, the reliability of existing scales were considered (and previously noted in section 4.3). The questionnaire used for this inquiry relies on multi-item measurement scales

and therefore it was necessary to test the reliability of each of these scales for all considered samples. Cronbach's alpha is among the most commonly used and accepted indicators of internal consistency. An alpha coefficient (α) equal to or above .70 is generally considered acceptable (DeVellis, 2003; Nunnally, 1978). With shorter scales (fewer than ten items) Cronbach values are often quite low therefore the inter-item correlation mean is recommended as a measurement of scale reliability in these cases (Pallant, 2010). An optimal range for the inter-item correlation is .2 to .4 (Briggs & Cheek, 1986). Both tests were run for all samples at all levels of investigation. Results from these tests are presented in Appendix G. All applied scales had good internal consistency with inter-item correlation means within an acceptable range from a low of .24 to a high of .88. With the exception of the PIC scale (for which the inter-item correlation means suggest acceptable reliability), all Cronbach alpha coefficients were also above the .70 cut-off providing support for the applied measurements.

Several of the statistical techniques relied upon for the analyses of this study's data assume that the distributions of scores on dependent variables have a reasonably normal distribution. Given possible biases associated with hockey event attendance, it was expected that the study sample may not perfectly represent the general population. In order to assess normality, for all levels of sample investigation (i.e., all-events, women's hockey, men's hockey, cancer-cause events, social-cause events, and five individual events), formal tests of normality were performed along with skewness and kurtosis values. Both Kolmogorov-Smirnov (for samples larger than 50) and Shapiro-Wilk tests (for samples smaller than 50) were considered and in all cases revealed significance and therefore suggested a violation of the assumption of normality. With larger sample sizes (n >200 cases as per Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) these procedures are overly sensitive and commonly reject variables that only slightly deviate from normality (Micceri,

1989; Pallant, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Given that the all-events sample (n=642), women's hockey sample (n=200), men's hockey sample (n=442), cancer-causes sample (n=257) and social-causes sample (n=376) are relatively large these samples were deemed reasonably normal for the purpose of conducting parametric tests that are commonly supported as sufficiently robust to overcome moderate variations from normality (DeCarlo, 1997; Glass, Peckham, & Sanders, 1972; Pallant, 2010; Micceri, 1989; Vickers, 2005). As small sample sizes are more vulnerable to possible violations of assumptions of normality (Vickers, 2005; Yazinici & Yolacan, 2007) non-parametric alternatives for the five event specific samples were also computed. In the absence of clear consensus on acceptable degrees of deviation from normality, inclusion of both parametric and non-parametric results for these smaller samples substantiates presented findings from this study.

5.2 Demographic Characteristics and Sample Treatment Rationale

As previously noted, data was gathered at five different venues. All of these were spectator-based charity-linked sporting events. The sport of hockey was consistent across all events and included both women's and men's charity-linked games. Affiliated charities varied however with three events linked to cancer-related causes (events #1, 2, and 3) and two events focused on social causes (events #4 and 5). The demographic characteristics (including gender, age range, household income bracket, and number of dependent children) of each event were first analyzed to identify any significant differences between the investigated samples.

In terms of gender, greater female participation was noted at all three university events (i.e., events #1, 2, and 3). In total, 60% of the university events sample was female. Stronger female participation may be attributed to the fact that two of these three events involved women's

hockey and all three events were associated with pink-themed cancer causes. For Nipissing University events (i.e., #1 and 3), almost 70% of this student body is female and therefore an overrepresentation of female respondents was expected. The NHL sample (i.e., event 4) was the only event for which a stronger male response was realized (64.2% of responses). Data from the final event (i.e., OHL Sudbury Wolves) was the most equitable gender response with 50.9% female and 47.9% male response. When considering all five events combined (i.e., all-events sample), a balanced gender representation was achieved with 48.9% female and 49.7% male participation. Gender comparisons across these sampled events are presented in Table 16 below.

Table 16: Comparison of Gender across Sampled Events

Gender						
	Event 1: NU-RMWP	Event 2: LU-PTR	Event 3: NU-PTR	Event 4: Senators Food Drive	Event 5: Wolves Teddy Bear Toss	All – Events Sample
Female	58.3%	56.4%	64.6%	34%	50.9%	48.9%
Male	41.7%	41.6%	34.3%	64.2%	47.9%	49.7%

Attendance at these events, tended to favour a younger demographic. When comparing the age of respondents across the various events, 46.5% of university game respondents were 18-24 years of age. This is likely reflective of the primary target of university athletic events being students. (The only exception was event #1, NU-RMWP where the 45-55 cohort was slightly larger than the 18-24 group). NHL event respondents were older with the largest response group being 25-34 years old, although the 18-24 group represented 24.2% of responses. The OHL event (i.e., event #5) had the largest portion of 35-44 responses (27.5%) and over 25% of research participants were over the age of 55, thereby reflecting a more mature crowd at this particular event. As will be noted later, characteristics of this event suggest that it was the most family-

oriented event (possibly driven by the Teddy Bear Christmas link, afternoon scheduled game, strong community following, etc.). For the all-events sample, over 30% of respondents belonged to the youngest age segment (i.e., 18-24 years old). A comparison of reported age across the five sampled events is presented in Table 17 below.

Table 17: Comparison of Age across Sampled Events

Age						
	Event 1	Event 2	Event 3	Event 4	Event 5	All – Events
18-24	26.7%	62.4%	42.4%	24.2%	12.6%	30.2%
25-34	10.0%	4.0%	8.1%	28.8%	16.8%	16.8%
35-44	16.7%	7.9%	16.2%	18.6%	27.5%	18.7%
45-54	28.3%	16.8%	22.2%	12.6%	17.4%	17.4%
55-64	8.3%	5.9%	8.1%	12.6%	15.0%	11.1%
65+	10.0%	1.0%	3.0%	2.8%	10.2%	5.1%

With the exception of the NHL event, the most frequent response concerning household (HH) income was under $50,000. This is in line with the higher proportion of younger (i.e., 18-24) respondents who are presumed to earn lower income levels. The NHL sample had more respondents in the $50,000-$100,000 HH income range. Given the higher cost of NHL tickets and the older age of participants at this event, this finding is reasonable. HH income comparisons across sampled events are presented in Table 18 below.

Table 18: Comparison of Household Income across Sampled Events

Household Income						
	Event 1	Event 2	Event 3	Event 4	Event 5	All – Events
Under $50k	38.4%	23.8%	32.3%%	25.1%	32.4%	29.0%
$50-100k	26.6%	19.8%	24.3%	31.6%	28.8%	27.4%
$100-150k	11.7%	14.9%	20.2%	19.1%	16.2%	17.1%

$150+	11.7%	21.8%	11.1%	14.9%	10.2%	13.9%
Prefer not to answer	10.0%	17.8%	12.1%	8.4%	10.8%	11.2%

The final demographic measure was the number of dependent children in the home. An answer of zero could indicate that the respondent had no children or that their child/ren were no longer living at home. In all sampled cases, the most frequent response was no children living in the home. This finding was strongest at university events where the majority of spectators were also part of the youngest age cohort. The OHL event (#4) is the only case where more respondents had children in the home (52.1%) than not (46.1%). This lends support to the suggestion that event #5 (Sudbury Teddy Bear Toss) was perhaps the most family-oriented event. The scheduled time of events could also have impacted the profile of attendees. For instance, all events were evening games with the exception of the OHL game, which was a Sunday matinee game. In this case, a game beginning at 2pm on a Sunday afternoon may have encouraged more families to attend. The NHL game was a Thursday night (i.e., a school night) game which could have deterred families with young children from attending. The second most frequent response from the all-events sample (i.e. 20.6%) was from families with two children currently in the HH, followed by 1 child (13.7%). A comparison of the number of dependent children across investigated events is presented in Table 19 below.

Table 19: Comparison of Number of Children across Sampled Events

Number of (Dependent) Children						
	Event 1	Event 2	Event 3	Event 4	Event 5	All – Events
0	55.0%	69.3%	64.6%	55.3%	46.1%	56.5%
1	21.7%	5.9%	12.1%	14.4%	15.6%	13.7%

2	20.0%	14.9%	17.2%	19.5%	27.5%	20.6%
3	1.7%	6.9%	5.1%	6.5%	3.6%	5.1%
4	0%	2.0%	1.0%	1.9%	3.6%	2.0%
more than 4	1.7%	0%	0%	1.9%	1.8%	1.2%

Differences in measured event samples are acknowledged above. In order to determine if these observed demographic differences among sampled events were statistically significant, Kruskal-Wallis tests were conducted. For the variable of age, a Kruskal-Wallis test revealed a statistically significant difference in reported age levels across the five investigated events (χ^2(4, n=638)=56.83, p=.000). Events 1 and 5 recorded higher median age range scores (Md=35-44yrs), events 3 and 4 both recorded median age ranges of 25-34 years old, and the youngest respondents (18-24) were at event #2 (LU-PTR). For the variable of household income, the same technique was used to determine if reported income was significantly different across the five events. In this case, results revealed that variances in income were not significantly different (χ^2(4, n=634)=8.918, p=.063) and therefore not likely to skew reported research findings. With respect to the number of dependent children in the home, significant differences were revealed across the five samples (χ^2(4, n=637)=13.793, p=.008). Event 5 respondents reported having significantly more children (md=1 child) than all other events where the median response was no dependent children. A child effect could therefore influence findings for event #5 (Wolves Teddy Bear Toss).

The relationships between these demographic measures (i.e., age, income, and number of children) and the independent variables of this study (i.e., PIC, PIS, PI, GSW, GSM, FIT, and SINC) were investigated using Spearman rho correlation analysis. Results revealed only one weak correlation between PIS and number of children (rho=.081, n=637, p=.04). All other variables were not significantly associated with these demographic characteristics. Although the

five event samples may not be completely equivalent in terms of demographic characteristics, the impact of any noted differences on reported research findings is therefore considered to be minimal. Correlation results are presented in Table 20 below.

Table 20: Correlation of Demographic and Independent Variables

		PIC	PIS	PI	GSW	GSM	FIT	SINC
AGE	Correlation Coefficient	-.058	-.019	-.029	.020	-.066	-.024	.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.146	.628	.472	.616	.096	.551	.760
	N	638	638	638	638	638	638	638
INCOME	Correlation Coefficient	-.014	.063	.041	.077	.059	-.075	.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.716	.112	.304	.053	.141	.061	.469
	N	634	634	634	634	634	634	634
CHILDREN	Correlation Coefficient	.003	.081*	.070	.057	.043	.012	.054
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.948	.041	.077	.150	.279	.771	.173
	N	637	637	637	637	637	637	637

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In order to thoroughly address the research hypotheses, analyses were performed with several sample treatments. The all-events sample offered a broad view of findings with the greatest number of respondents and balanced gender representation while the individual event samples provided unique perspectives and contrasting features. The gender of sport being played was also an important consideration in this investigation of gender effects. As such, women's hockey and men's hockey samples were distinguished. As a final level of investigation, the various causes linked to these events were grouped into two broad categories: cancer-cause events and social-cause events. Exploring the data from these multiple perspectives extended the platform of potential discovery and offered a deeper understanding of outcomes. Demographic profiles for these additional samples (i.e., women's hockey versus men's hockey, cancer-causes versus

social causes) are presented in Table 21, Table 22, Table 23, and Table 24 below. Each is followed by a brief profile description that resembles much of the observations presented in the preceding event comparisons analysis.

Table 21: Demographic Characteristics (Women's Hockey Sample)

Measure	Women		Men		Total	
Event:	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Event #2 – LU-PTR	57	47.1%	42	55.3%	99	50.3%
Event #3-NU-PTR	64	52.9%	34	44.7%	98	49.7%
Total	*121*	*100.0%*	*76*	*100.0%*	*197*	*100.0%*
Age:						
18-24	53	43.8%	51	68.0%	104	53.1%
25-34	9	7.4%	3	4.0%	12	6.1%
35-44	20	16.5%	4	5.3%	24	12.2%
45-54	29	24.0%	9	12.0%	38	19.4%
55-64	8	6.6%	6	8.0%	14	7.1%
65 or above	2	1.7%	2	2.7%	4	2.0%
Total	*121*	*100.0%*	*75*	*100.0%*	*196*	*100.0%*
Household Income:						
Under $50,000	29	24.2%	26	34.2%	55	28.1%
$50,000-$100,000	26	21.7%	18	23.7%	44	22.4%
$100,000-150,000	21	17.5%	13	17.1%	34	17.3%
$150,000 or more	24	20.0%	9	11.8%	33	16.8%
Prefer Not to Answer	20	16.7%	10	13.2%	30	15.3%
Total	*120*	*100.0%*	*76*	*100.0%*	196	*100.0%*
Dependent Children:						
0	70	57.9%	62	81.6%	132	67.0%
1	14	11.6%	4	5.3%	18	9.1%
2	25	20.7%	7	9.2%	32	16.2%
3	10	8.3%	2	2.6%	12	6.1%
4	2	1.7%	1	1.3%	3	1.5%
More than 4	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Total	*121*	*100.0%*	*76*	*100.0%*	197	*100.0%*

The women's hockey sample consisted of 197 responses from two university events: LU-PTR and NU-PTR. This sample was female-skewed as women represented 61.4% of respondents and men accounted for 38.6% of this group. The majority of men (68.0%) and 43.8% of women belonged to the youngest age category (18-24 years old). A presence of more mature women was also noted among this sample as 32.3% of females reported being over the age of 45 (versus 22.7% of men). The most common response in terms of HH income for both men (34.2%) and women (24.2%) was the lowest income bracket (under $50,000). Perhaps influenced by the presence of an older segment of female spectators, 20% of female respondents indicated the highest income option ($150,000 or more). Most sampled spectators (67%) at these combined events did not report having any children in their homes. This was the case for 81.6% of male respondents and 57.8% of females.

Table 22: Demographic Characteristics (Men's Hockey Sample)

Measure	**Women**		**Men**		**Total**	
Event:	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Event #1 – NU-RMWP	35	18.1%	25	10.3%	60	13.8%
Event #4 - NHL Food Drive	73	37.8%	138	56.8%	211	48.4%
Event #5- OHL Toy Drive	85	44.0%	80	32.9%	165	37.8%
Total	*193*	*100.0%*	*243*	*100.0%*	*436*	*100.0%*
Age:						
18-24	33	17.1%	55	22.6%	88	20.2%
25-34	45	23.3%	50	20.6%	95	21.8%
35-44	46	23.8%	50	20.6%	96	22.0%
45-54	33	17.1%	40	16.5%	73	16.7%
55-64	23	11.9%	32	13.2%	55	12.6%
65 or above	13	6.7%	16	6.6%	29	6.7%
Total	*193*	*100.0%*	*243*	*100.0%*	*436*	*100.0%*
Household Income:						

Under $50,000	69	35.9%	62	25.8%	131	30.3%
$50,000-$100,000	46	24.0%	86	35.8%	132	30.6%
$100,000-150,000	35	18.2%	38	15.8%	73	16.9%
$150,000 or more	21	10.9%	34	14.2%	55	12.7%
Prefer Not to Answer	21	10.9%	20	8.3%	41	9.5%
Total	*192*	*100.0%*	*240*	*100.0%*	432	*100.0%*
Dependent Children:						
0	94	49.2%	133	54.7%	227	52.3%
1	33	17.3%	35	14.4%	68	15.7%
2	49	25.7%	51	21.0%	100	23.0%
3	7	3.7%	14	5.8%	21	4.8%
4	6	3.1%	4	1.6%	10	2.3%
More than 4	2	1.0%	6	2.5%	8	1.8%
Total	*191*	*100.0%*	*243*	*100.0%*	434	*100.0%*

The men's hockey sample size was larger than the women's hockey sample, consisting of 436 responses from three different levels of charity-linked hockey events: one university event (NU-RMWP), one NHL event (Ottawa Senators Food Drive), and one OHL event (Sudbury Wolves Teddy Bear Toss). This sample was more gender balanced than the women's hockey group as female respondents represented 44.3% of this sample and males accounted for 55.7%. The distribution of age was also more varied with this segment. While almost 44% of female respondents at the women's games were between the ages of 18-24, at men's games this same segment represented only17.1% of responses while 47.1% were between the ages of 25-44. The age of male respondents among this sample were also more diverse as only 22.6% belonged to the youngest age range (versus 68% at the women's events) and 41.2% were between 25-44 years old. Almost 20% of respondents (18.6% of women and 19.8% of men) were aged 55 or older. The most common response in terms of HH income for women (35.9%) was the lowest income bracket (under $50,000) while 35.8% of men reported income in the range of $50,000-$100,000. More respondents of this sample reported dependent children (47.7% versus 33% of

the women's hockey sample). Slightly more women had children (50.8%) than not (49.2%) while 45.3% of male respondents indicated children in the home.

In order to assess any significant differences in the demographic characteristics of these two samples (i.e., spectators of women's hockey versus spectators of men's hockey), Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. Similar to the Kruskal-Wallis tests reported for the comparison of the five individual events, a significant difference was revealed for the variables of age. In this case, the women's hockey sample was younger (Md=18-24 years, n=198) than the men's hockey sample (Md=35-44 years, n=440). The magnitude of this age difference however was very small (U=31348, z=-5.81, p=.00, r=0.2). The reported number of children between these groups was also significantly different as the women's hockey sample reported less children (Md=0, n=199) than the men's hockey sample (which had a higher mean rank, Md=0, n=438). The effect of this difference was also very small (U=37452, z=-3.17, p=.001, r=.1). Differences in reported HH income were not found to be significant (U=40224.5, z=-1.388, p=.165). As noted above, the absence of significant correlations between these demographic factors and the predictor variables of this study renders the potential effect of these differences minimal.

The final sample treatment was the classification of events by types of causes: cancer-related causes and social-related causes.

Table 23: Demographic Characteristics (Cancer-Causes Sample)

Measure	**Women**		**Men**		**Total**	
Event:	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Event #1: NU-RMWP	35	22.4%	25	24.8%	60	23.3%
Event #2: LU-PTR	57	36.5%	42	41.6%	99	38.5%
Event #3: NU-PTR	64	41.0%	34	33.7%	98	38.1%
Total	*156*	*100.0%*	*101*	*100.0%*	*257*	*100.0%*

Age:						
18-24	64	41.0%	56	56.0%	120	46.9%
25-34	14	9.0%	4	4.0%	18	7.0%
35-44	26	16.7%	8	8.0%	34	13.3%
45-54	39	25.0%	16	16.0%	55	21.5%
55-64	10	6.4%	9	9.0%	19	7.4%
65 or above	3	1.9%	7	7.0%	10	3.9%
Total	*156*	*100.0%*	*100*	*100.0%*	*256*	*100.0%*
Household Income:						
Under $50,000	44	28.4%	34	34.0%	78	30.6%
$50,000-$100,000	34	21.9%	26	26.0%	60	23.5%
$100,000-150,000	24	15.5%	17	17.0%	41	16.1%
$150,000 or more	29	18.7%	11	11.0%	40	15.7%
Prefer Not to Answer	24	15.5%	12	12.0%	36	14.1%
Total	*155*	*100.0%*	*100*	*100.0%*	255	*100.0%*
Dependent Children:						
0	87	55.8%	78	77.2%	165	64.2%
1	25	16.0%	6	5.9%	31	12.1%
2	32	20.5%	12	11.9%	44	17.1%
3	10	6.4%	3	3.0%	13	5.1%
4	2	1.3%	1	1.0%	3	1.2%
More than 4	0	0.0%	1	1.0%	1	0.4%
Total	*156*	*100.0%*	*101*	*100.0%*	257	*100.0%*

The cancer-causes sample consisted of 257 responses from the three university pink-themed events: NU-RMWP, LU-PTR and NU-PTR. The demographic composition of this sample was therefore similar to the women's hockey sample (which captured two of these three events). This group was female-skewed as women represented 60.7% of respondents and men accounted for 39.3%. The majority of men (56.0%) and 41.0% of women belonged to the youngest age range (18-24 years old). A more mature presence was also noted among this sample with 33.3% of females and 32.0% of males reportedly over the age of 45. The most common response in terms of HH income for both men (34.0%) and women (28.4%) was the lowest income bracket

(under $50,000) followed by the next increment of $50,000-100,000 (indicated by 21.9% of females and 26.0% of males). Most sampled spectators (64.2%) at these combined events did not report having any children in their homes. This was the case for 77.2% of male respondents and 55.8% of females.

Table 24: Demographic Characteristics (Social-Causes Sample)

Measure	Women		Men		Total	
Event:	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Event #4: NHL Food Drive	73	46.2%	138	63.3%	211	56.1%
Event #5: OHL Toy Drive	85	53.8%	80	36.7%	165	43.9%
Total	*158*	*100.0%*	*218*	*100.0%*	*376*	*100.0%*
Age:						
18-24	22	13.9%	50	22.9%	72	19.1%
25-34	40	25.3%	49	22.5%	89	23.7%
35-44	40	25.3%	46	21.1%	86	22.9%
45-54	23	14.6%	33	15.1%	56	14.9%
55-64	21	13.3%	29	13.3%	50	13.3%
65 or above	12	7.6%	11	5.0%	23	6.1%
Total	*158*	*100.0%*	*218*	*100.0%*	*376*	*100.0%*
Household Income:						
Under $50,000	54	34.4%	54	25.0%	108	29.0%
$50,000-$100,000	38	24.2%	78	36.1%	116	31.1%
$100,000-150,000	32	20.4%	34	15.7%	66	17.7%
$150,000 or more	16	10.2%	32	14.8%	48	12.9%
Prefer Not to Answer	17	10.8%	18	8.3%	35	9.4%
Total	*157*	*100.0%*	*216*	*100.0%*	373	*100.0%*
Dependent Children:						
0	77	49.4%	117	53.7%	194	51.9%
1	22	14.1%	33	15.1%	55	14.7%
2	42	26.9%	46	21.1%	88	23.5%
3	7	4.5%	13	6.0%	20	5.3%
4	6	3.8%	4	1.8%	10	2.7%

More than 4	2	1.3%	5	2.3%	7	1.9%
Total	*156*	*100.0%*	*218*	*100.0%*	374	*100.0%*

The social-causes sample consisted of 376 responses from the NHL and OHL events. These events supported social causes that included both a food and a toy drive for local communities. Women represented 42% of this segment while men accounted for 58%. Similar to the men's hockey sample, the distribution of age was more varied with this segment than with the cancer-causes group. While 41% of female respondents from the cancer-causes sample were between the ages of 18-24, this same young segment represented only13.9% of responses among the social-causes sample while 50.6% of women were between the ages of 25-44. The age of male respondents among this sample were also more varied as only 22.9% belonged to the youngest age range (versus 56% of the cancer-causes segment) and 43.6% were between 25-44 years old. Almost 20% of respondents (20.9% of women and 18.3% of men) were aged 55 or older. The most common response in terms of HH income for women (34.4%) was the lowest income bracket (under $50,000) while 36.1% of men reported income in the range of $50,000-$100,000. More respondents of this sample reported dependent children (48.1% versus 35.8% of the cancer-causes sample). Slightly more women had children (50.6%) than not (49.4%) while 46.3% of male respondents indicated children in the home.

In order to assess any significant differences in the demographic characteristics of these two samples (i.e., cancer-causes versus social-causes), Mann-Whitney U tests were again conducted with consistent results as the previously compared samples. Significant differences were revealed for the variables of age and number of dependent children. The cancer-causes sample was younger (Md=25-34 years, n=258) than the social-causes sample (Md=35-44 years, n=380), however the effect of this difference was very small (U=39030.5, z=-4.48, p=.00, r=0.18). The

number of children reported by the cancer-causes sample was less (Md=0, n=259) than the social-causes sample (which had a higher mean rank, Md=0, n=378) and the magnitude of this difference was also very small (U=42429, z=-3.19, p=.001, r=.1). Differences in reported income were not found to be significant (U=47476.5, z=-.432, p=.67). As noted above, the absence of significant correlations between these demographic factors and the predictor variables of this study renders the potential effect of these differences minimal.

5.3 Hypotheses Testing

In this section, the eleven hypothesized relationships are tested and differences between genders are examined for all levels of investigation (i.e., all-events sample, women's hockey sample vs. men's hockey sample, cancer-cause sample versus social cause sample, and five individual events).

5.3.1 Hypothesis 1

H1: Females are more highly involved with cause (PIC) than males at charity-linked sporting events.

In order to compare cause involvement levels between genders, independent sample t-tests were performed to compare the mean PIC scores of females and males. For the all-events sample H1 was supported as there was a significant difference in scores for females (M= 3.85, SD=.71) and males (M=3.69, SD=.69; t (631) = 3.05, p=.002, two-tailed). Women reported stronger involvement with the investigated causes than did men. In order to assess the strength of these observed differences, partial eta squared effect size statistics were also computed. According to Cohen (1988), eta squared (% of variance explained) is small for values of .01, while .06 indicates a moderate effect and large effects are in the range of .14. The magnitude of the

difference in the means (mean difference = .17, 95% CI: .06 to .28) in this case was relatively small as eta squared=.014.

When considering the women's hockey sample, there was not a statistically significant difference in the reported PIC of women and men thereby rejecting H1 with this sample group. Several reviews contend that unequal (or small) sample sizes can compromise the robustness of parametric procedures (Blair, 1981; Ito, 1980; Tan, 1982 as cited in Micceri, 1989). Given that the sample size for women (n=121) was larger than for men (n=76) in this case, the t-test test was rerun with an equal sample size of 76 by randomly selected a sub-sample of the female population and maintaining the full male sample of 76. The same insignificant results were found in this case.

When considering the men's hockey sample, H1 was supported as there was significant difference in the mean PIC scores for females (M= 3.78, SD=.712) and males (M= 3.61, SD=.686); t (434)=2.476, p= .014, two-tailed). At these men's hockey games, women reported higher involvement with the corresponding causes. The magnitude of the difference between means (mean difference = .167, 95% CI: .034 to .299) was again fairly small (eta squared= .01). Same sample size (n=193) analysis rendered the same conclusion (women's M=3.77, SD=.71; men's M=3.59, SD=.68; t(384)=2.63, p=.009, 95% CI: .047 to .235).

When contrasting results by type of cause, women reported significantly stronger PIC at social-cause events than did men while no significant gender differences were noted among the cancer-causes sample. For the social-causes sample, there was significant difference in the mean PIC scores for females (M= 3.78, SD=.67) and males (M= 3.57, SD=.67); t (374)= 3.00, p= .003, two-2-tailed). The magnitude of the difference between means (mean difference = .210, 95% CI:

.072 to .347) was fairly small (eta squared= .02). Same sample size (n=158) analysis rendered the same significant conclusion (women's M=3.78, SD=.67; men's M=3.58, SD=.69; t(314) = 2.58, p=.01, 95% CI: .047 to .348).

The five individual events were also investigated in terms of PIC score comparisons between genders. In all cases, t-tests were performed first with the actual collected sample sizes for each gender group and then in instances where the difference in sample size was 10 cases or more, analysis was repeated with equal randomly adjusted sample sizes. For events 1 through 4, no significant differences were observed. For event 5 (Sudbury Wolves Teddy Bear Toss), women reported significantly stronger involvement levels with the cause. Results in this case for women were M=3.92, SD=.698 while men's reported findings were M=3.61, SD=.713; t(163)=2.798, p=.006, two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference between means (mean difference = .307, 95% CI: .09 to .524) was moderate (eta squared= .05) and the strongest distinction of all observed scenarios. The Mann-Whitney U test (non-parametric alternative to the independent samples t-test) was also run for all individual event samples and revealed the same insignificant results for Events 1-4 and similar significance for Event 5. In this case, women's PIC levels (Md=4, n=85) were significantly higher than men's (Md=3.6, n=80, U=2362, z=-3.43, p=.001). The effect size in this calculation was also moderate at r=.27.

The statistical analyses for the testing of hypothesis one (H1) are presented in Table 25 and Table 26 with Mann-Whitney U test calculations itemized in Table 27.

Table 25: Gender Comparisons of Personal Involvement with Cause

Statistic	Female	Male
All Events		
N	314	319
Mean	3.85	3.69
S.D.	.706	.686
Women's Hockey		
N	121 [76]*	76
Mean	3.98 [3.92]	3.94
S.D.	.679 [.653]	.625
Men's Hockey		
N	193	243 [193]
Mean	3.77	3.61 [3.59]
S.D.	.712	.686 [.677]
Cancer-Causes		
N	156 [101]	101
Mean	3.93 [3.98]	3.93
S.D.	.732 [.751]	.667
Social-Causes		
N	158	218 [158]
Mean	3.78	3.57 [3.58]
S.D.	.674	.666 [.685]
Event 1		
N	35 [25]	25
Mean	3.73 [3.57]	3.91
S.D.	.874 [.920]	.797
Event 2		
N	57 [42]	42
Mean	4.12 [4.13]	3.92
S.D.	.599 [.589]	.694
Event 3		
N	64 [34]	34

Mean	3.86 [3.83]	3.96
S.D.	.727 [.753]	.537
Event 4		
N	73	138 [73]
Mean	3.63	3.55 [3.60]
S.D.	.613	.639 [.687]
Event 5		
N	85	80
Mean	3.92	3.61
S.D.	.698	.713

*Numbers in brackets represent results for adjusted sample sizes to allow for equitable comparison

Table 26: T-Tests for Equality of Means – Personal Involvement with Cause

							95% Confidence Internal	
Sample	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Differences**	**Eta Squared***	**Std. Error Difference**	**Lower**	**Upper**
All Events	3.047	631	.002	.169	.014	.055	.059	.277
Women's Hockey	0.466	195	.642	.045	n.s.	.096	-.145	.235
Men's Hockey	2.476	434	.014	.166	.01	.067	.034	.299
Cancer-Causes	-0.037	255	.970	-.003	n.s.	.090	-.181	.174
Social-Causes	3.000	374	.003	.210	.02	.070	.072	.347
Event 1	-0.786	58	.435	-.173	n.s.	.220	-.615	.268
Event 2	1.506	97	.135	.196	n.s.	.130	-.062	.455
Event 3	-0.679	96	.499	-.096	n.s.	.142	-.377	.185
Event 4	0.821	209	.413	.075	n.s.	.091	-.105	.255
Event 5	2.798	163	.006	.307	.05	.109	.090	.524

*Eta Squared is provided for significant relationships.

Table 27: Mann- Whitney U Test – Personal Involvement with Cause

Sample	U	Z	P	r
Event 1	366.5	-1.080	0.281	n.s.
Event 2	1030.0	-1.200	0.230	n.s.

Event 3	1009.5	-0.593	0.553	n.s.
Event 4	4673.5	-0.875	0.382	n.s.
Event 5	2362.0	-3.430	0.001	0.27

*Effect size (r) is provided for significant relationships.

Given that women and men reported comparable involvement levels (PIC) at cancer-cause events while women indicated significantly greater involvement with social-causes, a further level of analysis was conducted to determine if each gender was significantly more involved with one type of cause over the other. Independent sample t-tests comparing the responses by gender, indicated that women's PIC was similar between cancer-causes (M=3.93, SD=.732) and social causes (M=3.78, SD=.674; t(312) = 1.84, p=.07). Male respondents, however, reported that PIC was significantly higher for cancer-causes (M=3.93, SD=.667) than for social-causes (M=3.57, SD=.666; t(317) = 4.47, p=.000). The magnitude of the differences in men's means (mean difference =.358, 95% CI: .20 to .52) was moderate (eta squared=.06). Results of this comparison of means are presented in Table 28 below.

Table 28: T-Tests for Equality of Means –Cancer vs. Social Cause Involvement

							95% Confidence Internal	
Sample	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Differences**	**Eta Squared***	**Std. Error Difference**	**Lower**	**Upper**
Women's Cancer vs. Social Causes	1.836	312	.067	.146	n.s.	.079	-.010	.302
Men's Cancer vs. Social Causes	4.473	317	.000	.359	.06	.080	.201	.517

Based on these reported findings, H1 is partially supported as women were found to have greater personal involvement with the cause at sporting events that are linked to a charity/cause when considering the all-events sample, men's hockey sample, social-causes sample, and Event #5 (men's OHL game in support of Salvation Army Toy Drive). The influence of gender on PIC was greatest at Event 5. Women's PIC was not significantly different between types of causes while men reported significantly greater PIC with cancer-causes than with social-causes.

5.3.2 Hypothesis 2

H2: Males are more highly involved with sport (PIS) than females at charity-linked hockey sporting events.

The same process of analysis as H1 was conducted in order to test for significant gender differences in reported involvement levels with the sport of hockey. In this case, independent sample t-tests comparing the mean PIS scores between gender groups revealed no significant differences. For event specific samples, Mann-Whitney U tests were also run with the same insignificant findings. These results were consistent across all levels of investigation thereby establishing that H2 is not supported. Table 29 and Table 30 summarize the results of this analysis. Table 31 details the non-parametric support for event specific samples.

Table 29: Gender Comparisons of Personal Involvement with Sport (Hockey)

Statistic	Female	Male
All Events		
N	314	319
Mean	4.00	4.04
S.D.	.916	.901
Women's Hockey		
N	121 [76]	76

Mean	4.07 [4.15]	4.07
S.D.	.991[.971]	.933
Men's Hockey		
N	193	243 [193]
Mean	3.96	4.03 [4.03]
S.D.	.866	.893 [.896]
Cancer-Causes		
N	156 [101]	101
Mean	3.99 [3.96]	4.03
S.D.	1.00 [1.022]	.991
Social-Causes		
N	158	218 [158]
Mean	4.01	4.04 [3.98]
S.D.	.819	.859 [.869]
Event 1		
N	35 [25]	25
Mean	3.71 [3.56]	3.91
S.D.	1.03 [1.14]	1.17
Event 2		
N	57 [42]	42
Mean	4.13 [4.08]	4.06
S.D.	.978 [1.03]	.994
Event 3		
N	64 [34]	34
Mean	4.02 [4.11]	4.07
S.D.	1.01 [1.08]	.868
Event 4		
N	73	138 [73]
Mean	3.87	3.98 [4.01]
S.D.	.817	.892 [.915]
Event 5		
N	85	80
Mean	4.14	4.14

S.D.	.806	.794

Table 30: T-Tests for Equality of Means – Personal Involvement with the Sport of Hockey

						95% Confidence Internal	
Sample	**t**	**Df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Differences**	**Std. Error Difference**	**Lower**	**Upper**
All Events	-.470	631	.639	-.034	.072	-.176	.108
Women's Hockey	.041	195	.967	.006	.142	-.274	.286
Men's Hockey	-.805	434	.421	-.068	.850	-.235	.099
Cancer-Causes	-.290	255	.772	-.037	.128	-.289	.215
Social-Causes	-.296	374	.768	-.026	.088	-.199	.147
Event 1	-.709	58	.481	-.202	.285	-.772	.368
Event 2	.355	97	.724	.071	.200	-.326	.468
Event 3	-.260	96	.796	-.053	.204	-.458	.352
Event 4	-.883	209	.378	-.111	.125	-.358	.137
Event 5	-.035	163	.972	-.004	.125	-.250	.242

Table 31: Mann- Whitney U Test – Personal Involvement with Sport

Sample	U	Z	p	r
Event 1	377.5	-0.912	0.36	n.s
Event 2	1115	-0.596	0.55	n.s
Event 3	1087.5	-0.004	1.00	n.s
Event 4	4532	-1.209	0.23	n.s
Event 5	3383	-0.56	0.96	n.s

*Effect size (r) is provided for significant relationships.

Given the non-significance of this comparison, the construct of PIS was further examined from an all-events sample perspective. This added level of analysis was undertaken to verify for any additional insights into the construct of PIS. Independent sample t-tests were conducted for all three measures of PIS to determine if any elements of this construct were impacted by gender. While PIS_1 scores (i.e., Hockey is an important part of my life.) were nearly identical for both

women (M=4.03) and men (M=4.04), differences (albeit not significant at the .05 level) were observed with PIS_2 (i.e., Hockey is one of the most enjoyable activities for me.). In this case, men reported a higher mean (M=4.08) than did women (M=3.96) but with a non-significant p value of .16. At an alpha value of .10, this observation nears significance. The final measure of PIS (i.e., Most of my friends are in some way connected to hockey) generated slightly higher (but still not significantly different) mean scores for women (M=4.02) than from men (M=3.99). When considering responses gathered at women's hockey games, women's agreement with this measure was the highest of all considered scenarios (M=4.17) and had the greatest distinction from the reported mean of men (M=4.08) however none of these further dissections of the PIS construct revealed any significant gender differences.

5.3.3 Hypothesis 3

H3: Females are more supportive of women's sport and causes/charities (GSW) than are males.

Independent sample t-tests were again relied upon to investigate the significance of possible differences between gender groups and their respective levels of support for women in terms of women's sports and women's causes. Significant differences were found in all investigated scenarios with the one exception of the smallest sampled event (i.e. Event 1: NU Real Men Wear Pink). An analysis of the all-events sample revealed that women (M=4.41, SD=.683) claim significantly stronger support for their own gender than do men (M=3.99, SD=.795; t(631)=7.234, p=.000, two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference=.427, 95% CI: .311 to .542) was moderate (eta squared=.08). A stronger gender effect on GSW was observed at women's hockey games. When considering the women's hockey sample, 13% (eta squared=.13) of the observed variance in GSW was explained by gender. This

reported effect was greatest at Event 2 (LU Women's Hockey Pink the Rink) where gender explained 19% of the variance observed in GSW. Results for all sample treatments are detailed in Table 32 and Table 33. Mann-Whitney U tests for the five event samples rendered the same conclusions as with the independent sample t-tests and are presented in Table 34. These results strongly support H3.

Table 32: Gender Comparisons of Gender Support for Women

Statistic	Female	Male
All Events		
N	314	319
Mean	4.41	3.99
S.D.	.683	.795
Women's Hockey		
N	121 [76]	76
Mean	4.63 [4.61]	4.16
S.D.	.535 [.544]	.699
Men's Hockey		
N	193	243 [193]
Mean	4.28	3.93 [3.92]
S.D.	.730	.816 [.819]
Cancer-Causes		
N	156 [101]	101
Mean	4.53 [4.52]	4.16
S.D.	.664 [.707]	.718
Social Causes		
N	158	218 [158]
Mean	4.30	3.91 [3.94]
S.D.	.686	.817 [.794]
Event 1		
N	35 [25]	25
Mean	4.16 [4.02]	4.16

S.D.	.906 [.995]	.787
Event 2		
N	57 [42]	42
Mean	4.67 [4.68]	4.06
S.D.	.494 [.466]	.782
Event 3		
N	64 [34]	34
Mean	4.60 [4.63]	4.29
S.D.	.572 [.466]	.566
Event 4		
N	73	138 [73]
Mean	4.35	3.95 [3.97]
S.D.	.686	.832 [.895]
Event 5		
N	85	80
Mean	4.26	3.83
S.D.	.688	.788

Table 33: T-Tests for Equality of Means – Gender Support for Women

							95% Confidence Internal	
Sample	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Eta-Squared**	**Mean Differences**	**Std. Error Difference**	**Lower**	**Upper**
All Events	7.234	631	.000	.08	.427	.059	.311	.542
Women's Hockey	5.293	195	.000	.13	.468	.088	.293	.642
Men's Hockey	4.593	434	.000	.05	.345	.075	.197	.493
Cancer-Causes	4.136	255	.000	.06	.362	.088	.190	.535
Social-Causes	4.979	374	.000	.06	.398	.080	.241	.555
Event 1	-.013	58	.990	-	-.003	.225	-.453	.447
Event 2	4.726	97	.000	.19	.607	.129	.352	.862
Event 3	2.543	96	.013	.06	.307	.121	.067	.547
Event 4	3.489	209	.001	.06	.396	.114	.172	.620
Event 5	3.823	163	.000	.08	.440	.115	.213	.667

Table 34: Mann-Whitney U Test – Gender Support for Women

Sample	U	Z	p	r
Event 1	428	1.5	0.88	n.s
Event 2	624.5	4.361	0.00	0.47
Event 3	737	2.806	0.01	0.28
Event 4	3619.5	3.522	0.00	0.24
Event 5	2261.5	-3.947	0.00	0.31

*Effect size (r) is provided for significant relationships.

5.3.4 Hypothesis 4

H4: Males are more supportive of men's sporting events and men's charitable/social causes (GSM) than are females.

Independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare reported scores for GSM between gender groups. When collectively considering all sampled events, there was a significant difference in scores for females (M=4.25, SD=.717) and males (M=4.02, SD=.719; t (631) =4.02, p=.024, two-tailed). Females in this case however were found to be more supportive of men's sports and charitable causes than were men. The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = .230, 95% CI: .117 to .342) was relatively small (eta squared=.03). Significant differences contrary to H4 were also found when analyzing the women's hockey sample, the men's hockey sample, the social-causes sample and individual Events 2 (LU Pink the Rink), 4 (Ottawa Senators Food Drive) and 5 (Sudbury Wolves Toy Drive). Only the smallest investigated venue (Event 1: NU Real Men Wear Pink) revealed a higher mean for GSM for men than for women but the difference in this finding was not significant. Non- significant gender differences in GSM were also noted for the cancer-causes and event 3 samples. H4 is therefore not supported with any of the sample treatments. Full statistical results for this analysis are presented in Table

35 and Table 36. Mann-Whitney U test results for the five individual events are presented in Table 37.

Table 35: Gender Comparisons of Gender Support for Men

Statistic	Female	Male
All Events		
N	314	319
Mean	4.25	4.02
S.D.	.717	.719
Women's Hockey		
N	121 [76]	76
Mean	4.35 [4.36]	4.13
S.D.	.660 [.647]	.617
Men's Hockey		
N	193	243 [193]
Mean	418	3.98 [3.98]
S.D.	.745	.746 [.730]
Cancer-Causes		
N	156 [101]	101
Mean	4.28 [4.31]	4.16
S.D.	.730 [.774]	.636
Social Causes		
N	158	218 [158]
Mean	4.21	3.95 [3.98]
S.D.	.706	.747 [.703]
Event 1		
N	35 [25]	25
Mean	4.03 [3.88]	4.26
S.D.	.899 [.992]	.694
Event 2		
N	57 [42]	42
Mean	4.50 [4.55]	4.08

S.D.	.575 [.561]	.594
Event 3		
N	64 [34]	34
Mean	4.22 [4.29]	4.18
S.D.	.706 [.676]	.650
Event 4		
N	73	138 [73]
Mean	4.23	4.01 [3.99]
S.D.	.703	.727 [.788]
Event 5		
N	85	80
Mean	4.19	3.85
S.D.	.712	.773

Table 36: T-Tests for Equality of Means – Gender Support for Men

							95% Confidence Internal	
Sample	**T**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Eta-Squared**	**Mean Differences**	**Std. Error Difference**	**Lower**	**Upper**
All Events	4.02*	631	.000	.03	.23	.057	.117	.342
Women's Hockey	2.44**	167.5	.016	.03	.226	.093	.043	.409
Men's Hockey	2.587	384	.010	.02	.194	.075	.047	.342
Cancer-Causes	1.398***	233.7	.164	n.s.	.120	.086	-.049	.290
Social-Causes	3.443	374	.001	.03	.262	.076	.113	.412
Event 1	-1.077	58	.286	n.s.	-.231	.215	-.661	.199
Event 2	3.515	97	.001	.11	.417	.119	.181	.652
Event 3	0.290	96	.773	n.s.	.042	.146	-.247	.332
Event 4	2.168	209	.031	.02	.226	.104	.021	.431
Event 5	2.977	163	.003	.05	.344	.116	.116	.572

*Levene's Test for Equality of Variances is significant (F=5.127, Sign=.024) therefore equal variance is not assumed in this case and alternate values are presented according to equal variances not assumed.

**Levene's Test for Equality of Variances is significant (F=5.547, Sign=.020) therefore equal variance is not assumed in this case and alternate values are presented according to equal variances not assumed.

**Levene's Test for Equality of Variances is significant (F=6.516, Sign=.011) therefore equal variance is not assumed in this case and alternate values are presented according to equal variances not assumed.

Table 37: Mann-Whitney U Test – Gender Support for Women

Sample	U	Z	p	R
Event 1	376.5	-0.953	0.34	n.s.
Event 2	761	-3.273	0.00	0.26
Event 3	1051	-0.288	0.77	n.s.
Event 4	4085	-2.368	0.02	0.18
Event 5	2539	-2.989	0.00	0.23

*Effect size (r) is provided for significant relationships.

5.3.5 Hypotheses 5a to 9a

Hypotheses 5 through 9 address the relationships between key variables in the sponsorship process. There are eleven such relationships (PI*FIT, PI*SINC, PI*INT, PI*FAV, PI*USE, FIT*INT, FIT*FAV, FIT*USE, SINC*INT, SINC* FAV, SINC*USE) that are first considered from a total sample perspective followed by an examination of possible gender effects with each of these relationships. This presentation of findings begins by addressing the main interaction of variables and then proceeds to compare results by gender.

H5a: Personal involvement (PI) has a direct and positive effect on perceived sponsor-event fit (FIT) in charity-linked sport settings.

H6a: Personal involvement (PI) has a direct and positive effect on perceived sincerity (SINC) of the sponsor in charity-linked sport settings.

H7a: Personal involvement (PI) has a direct and positive effect on sponsorship response (INT, FAV, and/or USE) in charity-linked sport settings.

H8a: Perceived sponsor-event fit (FIT) has a direct and positive effect on sponsorship response (INT, FAV and/or USE) in charity-linked sport settings.

H9a: Perceived sincerity (SINC) of the sponsor has a direct and positive effect on sponsorship response (INT, FAV and/or USE) in charity-linked sport settings.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to assess the strength and direction of the relationships to be tested. Scatterplots were generated and inspected to confirm linear relationships between variables. Cohen (1988) suggested that r =.10 to .29 is reflective of small correlation, r =.30 to .49 is moderate, and r =.50 to1.0 represents strong relationships between tested variables. Hair, Celsi, Ortinau, and Bush (2013) further distinguished between statistical and substantive significance and recommend considering the coefficient of determination (r^2) to understand the proportion of variance in one variable (such as FIT) that is explained by another variable (such as PI). These measures will assist in determining the practical use of correlation findings.

H5a to H9a were supported when analyzing the all-events sample as significant interactions were revealed among all eleven relationships. For this sample, significant correlations ranged from r= .37 to r=.53 among hypothesized variables. The weakest (but still significant) relationships were PI*USE (r=.37) and PI* FAV (r=.38) and the strongest observed correlations in this case were FIT*INT (r=.53) and SINC*INT (r=.51). Table 38 details all calculated correlations for the all-events sample.

Table 38: Correlation Matrix (All-Events Sample)

		PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
PI	Pearson Correlation		.440**	.439**	.415**	.375**	.370**

	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2		.19	.193	.172	.141	.137
	N		642	642	642	642	642
FIT	Pearson Correlation			.518**	.533**	.441**	.454**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2			.27	.28	.19	.21
	N			642	642	642	642
SINC	Pearson Correlation				.513**	.481**	.461**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
	R^2				.26	.23	.21
	N				642	642	642
INT	Pearson Correlation					.724**	.697**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
	R^2					.524	.486
	N					642	642
FAV	Pearson Correlation						.778**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	R^2						.61
	N						642
	M	3.897	3.72	4.10	3.80	3.87	3.78
	SD	.6564	.775	.783	.815	.772	.841

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

For the women's hockey sample, significant relationships were also confirmed among all considered variables within a range of r=.24 to .52. For data collected at women's hockey events, the weakest (but still significant) association was PI*USE (r=.24) and the strongest reported correlation was FIT*INT (r=.52) with very similar results as the total sample view. Table 39 presents the correlation results for this women's hockey sample.

Table 39: Correlation Matrix (Women's Hockey Sample)

	PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE

PI	Pearson Correlation		.338**	.399**	.291**	.280**	.235**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	R^2		.114	.159	.085	.078	.056
	N		200	200	200	200	200
FIT	Pearson Correlation			.447**	.521**	.428**	.443**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2			.200	.271	.183	.196
	N			200	200	200	200
SINC	Pearson Correlation				.449**	.437**	.409**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
	R^2				.202	.191	.167
	N				200	200	200
INT	Pearson Correlation					.663**	.654**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
	R^2					.440	.428
	N					200	200
FAV	Pearson Correlation						.723**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	R^2						.523
	N						200
	M	4.03	3.57	4.26	3.91	4.00	3.85
	SD	.622	.809	.674	.732	.665	.757

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Significant relationships were also confirmed with the men's hockey sample. For spectators of men's hockey, reported correlations ranged from r=.40 to r=.57. While still significant, the weakest of observed correlations with this men's hockey sample was PI*FAV (r=.40) and the

strongest correlations were FIT*INT (r=.57) as well as PI*FIT (r=.53), and SINC*INT (r=.53). Table 40 contains all calculated correlations for this men's hockey sample.

Table 40: Correlation Matrix (Men's Hockey Sample)

		PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
PI	Pearson Correlation		.525**	.439**	.451**	.395**	.414**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2		.276	.193	.203	.156	.171
	N		442	442	442	442	442
FIT	Pearson Correlation			.591**	.568**	.481**	.479**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2			.349	.323	.231	.229
	N			442	442	442	442
SINC	Pearson Correlation				.527**	.483**	.475**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
	R^2				.278	.233	.226
	N				442	442	442
INT	Pearson Correlation					.741**	.710**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
	R^2					.549	.504
	N					442	442
FAV	Pearson Correlation						.795**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	R^2						.632
	N						442
	M	3.84	3.79	4.02	3.75	3.81	3.74
	SD	0.66	.751	.817	.846	.810	.875

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Significant relationships were also confirmed with the cancer-causes sample. For spectators of cancer-cause events, reported correlations ranged from r=.24 to r=.51. While still significant, the weakest of observed correlations with this cancer-causes sample was PI*USE (r=.24) and the strongest correlation was FIT*INT (r=.51). Table 41 contains all calculated correlations for this cancer-causes sample.

Table 41: Correlation Matrix (Cancer-Causes Sample)

		PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
PI	Pearson Correlation		.368**	.359**	.297**	.290**	.243**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2		.135	.129	.088	.084	.059
	N		260	260	260	260	260
FIT	Pearson Correlation			.470**	.514**	.430**	.463**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2			.221	.264	.185	.214
	N			260	260	260	260
SINC	Pearson Correlation				.479**	.455**	.428**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
	R^2				.229	.207	.183
	N				260	260	260
INT	Pearson Correlation					.672**	.659**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
	R^2					.452	.434
	N					260	260
FAV	Pearson Correlation						.733**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	R^2						.537

	N						260
	M	3.98	3.65	4.25	3.90	3.98	3.87
	SD	.696	.822	.708	.745	.700	.764

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Significant relationships were also confirmed with the social-causes sample. For spectators of social-cause events, reported correlations ranged from r=.42 to r=.57. While still significant, the weakest of observed correlations with this social-causes sample was PI*FAV (r=.42) and the strongest correlation was FIT*INT (r=.57). Table 42 contains all calculated correlations for this social-causes sample.

Table 42: Correlation Matrix (Social-Causes Sample)

		PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
PI	Pearson Correlation		.520**	.483**	.487**	.423**	.448**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2		.270	.233	.237	.179	.201
	N		382	382	382	382	382
FIT	Pearson Correlation			.589**	.571**	.475**	.470**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2			.347	.326	.226	.221
	N			382	382	382	382
SINC	Pearson Correlation				.520**	.480**	.468**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
	R^2				.270	.384	.219
	N				382	382	382
INT	Pearson Correlation					.746**	.712**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
	R^2					.557	.507

	N					382	382
FAV	Pearson Correlation						.797**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	R^2						.635
	N						382
	M	3.84	3.77	3.99	3.73	3.79	3.71
	SD	.623	.740	.814	.853	.810	.884

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlation analyses were also conducted for each of the five individual events with results supporting the hypotheses in most cases. The only exception were two cases of insignificance (PI*FIT r= .19 and PI*USE r=.17) at Event 2 (LU Pink the Rink). The non-parametric alternative to Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient (i.e., Spearman Rank Order correlation) was also used to calculate correlations for the five event specific samples. In this case, the two noted cases of insignificance at Event 2 were found to be significant at the .01 level albeit with very weak correlations (PI*FIT=.20 and PI*USE=.22). Event specific correlation results can be found in Appendix H.

The testing of the eleven relationships specific to hypotheses 5a to 9a revealed significant correlations for all investigated samples with several strong relationships (r value above .5) noted across these scenarios. Based on these findings H5a, H6a, H7a, H8a, and H9a are all strongly supported.

Also noteworthy is the strong relationship between the constructs of FIT and SINC (all-events sample r=.52; women's hockey sample r=.45, men's hockey sample r =.57, cancer-causes sample r=.47, social-causes sample r=.59) as well as the powerful overlap between the three levels of

measured response (INT*FAV*USE). For instance, for the all-event sample, INT has over 52% shared variance with FAV and FAV helps to explain 61% of the variance in respondents' USE.

5.3.6 Hypotheses 5b to 9b

The following section re-considers the above tested relationships from a gendered perspective. Correlation matrices are first produced for both distinct groups and then the strength of the correlation coefficients are compared to determine any significant differences between the findings of women and men. The five grouped sample treatments (i.e., all-events, women's hockey, men's hockey, cancer-causes, and social-causes) were considered in these gender-level analyses. Event specific comparisons were not conducted as these individual events were captured in multiple sample groupings which allowed for significant comparisons and more focused discussion.

H5b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of PI*FIT and the effect is greater for women.

H6b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of PI *SINC and the effect is greater for women.

H7b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of PI*INT, PI*FAV, and PI*USE and the effect is greater for women.

H8b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of FIT* INT, FIT*FAV, and FIT*USE and the effect is greater for women.

H9b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of SINC*INT, SINC*FAV, and SINC*USE and the effect is greater for women.

The hypothesized relationships were again tested using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients with gender-split data. For the all-events sample, there were strong, positive correlations between all variables. For women, values for theorized relationships ranged from a low of r=.36 (PI*USE) to a high of r=.52 (FIT*INT). For men within this sample, correlations ranged from a low of r=.35 (PI*SINC and PI*FAV) to a high of r=.54 (FIT*INT). A detailed correlation matrix for the all-events sample is presented in Table 43.

Table 43: Correlation Matrix by Gender (All-Events Sample)

Gender			PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
Women	PI	Pearson Correlation		.466**	.514**	.443**	.392**	.355**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2		.217	.264	.196	.154	.126
		N		314	314	314	314	314
	FIT	Pearson Correlation			.488**	.519**	.445**	.469**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2			.238	.269	.198	.220
		N			314	314	314	314
	SINC	Pearson Correlation				.477**	.485**	.462**
		Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
		R^2				.228	.235	.213
		N				314	314	314
	INT	Pearson Correlation					.721**	.683**
		Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
		R^2					.520	.466
		N					314	314
	FAV	Pearson Correlation						.789**
		Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
		R^2						.623
		N						314
		M	3.93	3.66	4.16	3.84	3.88	3.81
		SD	.654	.772	.776	.802	.770	.828
Men	PI	Pearson		.407**	.347**	.366**	.346**	.369**

		Correlation						
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2		.166	.120	.134	.120	.136
		N		319	319	319	319	319
	FIT	Pearson Correlation			.551**	.540**	.423**	.435**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2			.304	.292	.179	.189
		N			319	319	319	319
	SINC	Pearson Correlation				.531**	.466**	.448**
		Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
		R^2				.282	.217	.201
		N				319	319	319
	INT	Pearson Correlation					.715**	.699**
		Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
		R^2					.511	.489
		N					319	319
	FAV	Pearson Correlation						.762**
		Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
		R^2						.581
		N						319
		M	3.86	3.77	4.03	3.75	3.85	3.74
		SD	.654	.769	.781	.812	.767	.847

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

For the women's hockey sample, three non-significant correlations were observed. These were all among the male sample and involved the PI construct (PI*FIT, PI*FAV, PI*USE). All other relationships were significant and positive. For women, significant results for hypothesized associations extended from a low of r=.29 (PI*USE) to a high of r=.52 (FIT*INT). Among the significant correlations found for the male sample, the lowest reported value was r= .24 (PI*INT) and the highest reported correlation was r=.51 (SINC*INT). A detailed correlation matrix for the women's hockey sample is presented in Table 44.

Table 44: Correlation Matrix by Gender (Women's Hockey Sample)

Gender			PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
Women	PI	Pearson Correlation		.393**	.450**	.297**	.317**	.283**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.001	.000	.002
		R^2		.154	.203	.088	.100	.080
		N		121	121	121	121	121
	FIT	Pearson Correlation			.420**	.521**	.442**	.474**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2			.176	.271	.195	.225
		N			121	121	121	121
	SINC	Pearson Correlation				.416**	.444**	.406**
		Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
		R^2				.173	.197	.165
		N				121	121	121
	INT	Pearson Correlation					.656**	.674**
		Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
		R^2					.430	.454
		N					121	121
	FAV	Pearson Correlation						.751**
		Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
		R^2						.564
		N						121
		M	4.03	3.47	4.28	3.86	3.94	3.80
		SD	.636	.797	.716	.744	.691	.754
Men	PI	Pearson Correlation		.218	.276*	.243*	.187	.103
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.059	.016	.035	.105	.376
		R^2		.048	.076	.059	.035	.011
		N		76	76	76	76	76
	FIT	Pearson Correlation			.527**	.489**	.356**	.352**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.002	.002
		R^2			.278	.239	.127	.124
		N			76	76	76	76
	SINC	Pearson Correlation				.514**	.439**	.408**
		Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
		R^2				.264	.193	.166

		N				76	76	76
	INT	Pearson Correlation					.661**	.599**
		Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
		R^2					.437	.359
		N					76	76
	FAV	Pearson Correlation						.670**
		Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
		R^2						.449
		N						76
		M	4.00	3.69	4.22	3.95	4.07	3.90
		SD	.594	.804	.608	.710	.618	.748

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

For the men's hockey sample, all relationships were strong and positive. For female respondents of this sample, r values ranged from a low of r=.40 (PI*USE) to a high of r=.58 (PI*FIT). For men of this same sample, significant r values ranged from r=.35 (PI*SINC) to r=.58 (FIT*INT). A detailed correlation matrix for the men's hockey sample is presented in Table 45.

Table 45: Correlation Matrix by Gender (Men's Hockey Sample)

Gender			PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
Women	PI	Pearson Correlation		.577**	.538**	.522**	.426**	.399**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2		.333	.289	.272	.181	.159
		N		193	193	193	193	193
	FIT	Pearson Correlation			.592**	.544**	.486**	.482**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2			.350	.296	.236	.232
		N			193	193	193	193
	SINC	Pearson Correlation				.509**	.500**	.496**
		Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000

		R^2				.259	.250	.246
		N				193	193	193
	INT	Pearson Correlation					.753**	.689**
		Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
		R^2					.567	.475
		N					193	193
	FAV	Pearson Correlation						.810**
		Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
		R^2						.656
		N						193
		M	3.87	3.78	4.09	3.83	3.84	3.81
		SD	.660	.733	.805	.838	.815	.873
Men	PI	Pearson Correlation		.477**	.349**	.383**	.365**	.421**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2		.228	.122	.147	.133	.177
		N		243	243	243	243	243
	FIT	Pearson Correlation			.581**	.575**	.463**	.472**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2			.338	.331	.202	.223
		N			243	243	243	243
	SINC	Pearson Correlation				.524**	.456**	.447**
		Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
		R^2				.275	.208	.200
		N				243	243	243
	INT	Pearson Correlation					.719**	.717**
		Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
		R^2					.517	.514
		N					243	243
	FAV	Pearson Correlation						.778**
		Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
		R^2						.605

		N						243
		M	3.82	3.79	3.98	3.69	3.78	3.69
		SD	.667	.758	.820	.833	.796	.871

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

For the cancer-causes sample, four non-significant correlations were observed. These were all among the male sample and involved the PI construct (PI*SINC, PI*INT, PI*FAV, PI*USE). All other relationships were significant and positive. For women, significant results for hypothesized associations extended from a low of r=.33 (PI*USE) to a high of r=.51 (FIT*INT). Among the significant correlations found for the male sample, the lowest reported value was r= .33 (PI*FIT) and the highest reported correlation was r=.50 (SINC*INT). A detailed correlation matrix for the cancer-causes sample is presented in Table 46 below.

Table 46: Correlation Matrix by Gender (Cancer-Causes Sample)

Gender			PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
Women	PI	Pearson Correlation		.380**	.463**	.367**	.364**	.327**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2		.144	.214	.135	.132	.107
		N		156	156	156	156	156
	FIT	Pearson Correlation			.471**	.514**	.423**	.499**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2			.222	.264	.179	.249
		N			156	156	156	156
	SINC	Pearson Correlation				.471**	.480**	.466**
		Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
		R^2				.222	.230	.217
		N				156	156	156

	INT	Pearson Correlation					.673**	.678**
		Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
		R^2					.453	.460
		N					156	156
	FAV	Pearson Correlation						.750**
		Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
		R^2						.563
		N						156
		M	3.96	3.54	4.25	3.83	3.86	3.79
		SD	.700	.817	.752	.772	.733	.771
Men	PI	Pearson Correlation		.328**	.154	.147	.139	.066
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.123	.143	.166	.509
		R^2		.108	.024	.022	.019	.004
		N		101	101	101	101	101
	FIT	Pearson Correlation			.485**	.476**	.382**	.359**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2			.235	.227	.146	.129
		N			101	101	101	101
	SINC	Pearson Correlation				.497**	.425**	.353**
		Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
		R^2				.247	.181	.125
		N				101	101	101
	INT	Pearson Correlation					.648**	.598**
		Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
		R^2					.420	.358
		N					101	101
	FAV	Pearson Correlation						.691**
		Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
		R^2						.477
		N						101

		M	3.98	3.79	4.24	3.99	4.13	3.98
		SD	.687	.805	.639	.693	.616	.736

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

For the social-causes sample, all relationships were strong and positive. For female respondents of this sample, r values ranged from a low of r=.39 (PI*USE) to a high of r=.61 (PI*FIT). For men of this same sample, significant r values ranged from r=.41 (PI*SINC and PI*FAV) to r=.58 (FIT*INT). A detailed correlation matrix for the social-causes sample is presented in Table 47.

Table 47: Correlation Matrix by Gender (Social-Causes Sample)

Gender			PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
Women	PI	Pearson Correlation		.610**	.572**	.532**	.430**	.392**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2		.372	.327	.283	.185	.154
		N		158	158	158	158	158
	FIT	Pearson Correlation			.563**	.537**	.478**	.452**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2			.317	.288	.228	.204
		N			158	158	158	158
	SINC	Pearson Correlation				.492**	.499**	.470**
		Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
		R^2				.242	.249	.221
		N				158	158	158
	INT	Pearson Correlation					.761**	.688**
		Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
		R^2					.579	.473
		N					158	158

	FAV	Pearson Correlation						.820**
		Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
		R^2						.672
		N						158
		M	3.90	3.77	4.08	3.85	3.90	3.83
		SD	.606	.709	.792	.834	.806	.883
Men	PI	Pearson Correlation		.451**	.407**	.440**	.406**	.479**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2		.203	.166	.194	.165	.229
		N		218	218	218	218	218
	FIT	Pearson Correlation			.593**	.583**	.458**	.477**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
		R^2			.352	.340	.210	.228
		N			218	218	218	218
	SINC	Pearson Correlation				.518**	.445**	.452**
		Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
		R^2				.268	.198	.204
		N				218	218	218
	INT	Pearson Correlation					.716**	.716**
		Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
		R^2					.513	.513
		N					218	218
	FAV	Pearson Correlation						.771**
		Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
		R^2						.594
		N						218
		M	3.81	3.76	3.94	3.64	3.71	3.63
		SD	.633	.753	.823	.839	.794	.875

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

With this understanding of correlations for each gender, the next step was to investigate if these findings were significantly different between women and men. In order to test the statistical significance of these differences between correlation coefficients, r values were converted into z scores and then observed values of z (Z_{obs}) were calculated (Preacher, 2002; Cohen & Cohen, 1983). To be considered statistically significant, Z_{obs} values must fall outside the boundaries of -1.96 and +1.96 (Pallant, 2010).

For the all-events sample, only one correlation was deemed significantly different. PI*SINC (Z_{obs} =2.58) had a significantly stronger correlation among women respondents that it did for the sampled male population, thereby supporting only H6b. H5b, H7b, H8b, and H9b were therefore not supported as differences between genders were not statistically significant for this all-events sample.

For the women's hockey sample, all Z_{obs} values were within the specified bounds (i.e., -1.96 to +1.96) and therefore confirmed no statistically significant differences between correlation results of these two sampled gender groups. These tests were also run with randomly equalized samples (n=76) and generated similar non-significant results. For this women's hockey sample, H5b, H6b, H7b, H8b, and H9b were not supported.

For the men's hockey sample, one significant difference was again observed. Women's PI*SINC (Z_{obs} =2.44) was significantly stronger than the correlation findings for men, contributing further support for H6b. H5b, H7b, H8b, and H9b were not supported. These tests were also run with randomly equalized samples (n=193) and confirmed these same conclusions.

For the cancer-causes sample two significant gender differences were observed. In this case, women's PI*SINC (Z_{obs} =2.68) was significantly stronger than the correlation findings for men,

contributing further support for H6b. The interaction of PI*USE was also found to be significantly greater for women (Z_{obs} =2.11) introducing new support for H7b at the level of USE. All correlations involving PI were stronger for women of this sample (PI*INT and PI*FAV were close to reaching a point of significance with Z_{obs}=1.83). H5b, H8b, and H9b were not supported with this sample.

For the social-causes sample two significant gender differences were observed. The impact of PI was greatest for women at these events as the interactions of PI*FIT (Z_{obs} =2.13) and PI*SINC (Z_{obs} =2.01) were significantly stronger for women than for men. These findings support H5b and H6b. No further relationships were found to be significantly different between genders of this social-causes sample. H7b, H8b, and H9b were therefore not supported.

Table 48 presents a summary of comparisons of correlation coefficients for these three investigated samples. Table 49 summarizes the comparison of correlation coefficients for the cancer-causes and social-causes samples.

Table 48: Comparison of Correlation Coefficients
(All-Events, Women's Hockey, and Men's Hockey Samples)

	All-Events Sample			**Women's Hockey Sample**			**Men's Hockey Sample**		
		Women (N=314)	Men (N=319)		Women (N=121)	Men (N=76)		Women (N=193)	Men (N=243)
PI*FIT	r	.466	.407	r	.393	.218	r	.577	.477
	Z(obs)	.913 (n.s.)		Z(obs)	1.301 (n.s.)		Z(obs)	1.43 (n.s.)	
PI*SINC	r	0.514	0.347	r	0.450	0.276	r	0.538	0.349
	Z (obs)	2.581 (sig.)		Z (obs)	1.352 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	2.441 (sig.)	
PI*INT	r	0.443	0.366	r	0.297	0.243	r	0.522	0.383
	Z (obs)	1.154 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	.391 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	1.807 (n.s.)	
PI*FAV	r	0.392	0.346	r	0.317	0.187	r	0.426	0.365
	Z	.667 (n.s.)		Z	0.934 (n.s.)		Z	0.745 (n.s.)	

	(obs)			(obs)			(obs)		
PI*USE	r	0.355	0.369	r	0.283	0.103	r	0.399	0.421
	Z (obs)	-0.202 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	1.26 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.272 (n.s.)	
FIT*SINC	r	0.488	0.551	r	0.42	0.527	r	0.592	0.581
	Z (obs)	-1.081 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.929 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.173 (n.s.)	
FIT*INT	r	0.519	0.54	r	0.521	0.489	r	0.544	0.575
	Z (obs)	-0.365(n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.289 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.465 (n.s.)	
FIT*FAV	r	0.445	0.423	r	0.442	0.356	r	0.486	0.463
	Z (obs)	0.339 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	.688 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.306 (n.s.)	
FIT*USE	r	0.469	0.435	r	0.474	0.352	r	0.482	0.472
	Z (obs)	.535 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	.991 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.133 (n.s.)	
SINC*INT	r	0.477	0.531	r	0.416	0.514	r	0.509	0.524
	Z (obs)	-.907 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.842 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.211 (n.s.)	
SINC*FAV	r	0.485	0.466	r	0.444	0.439	r	0.5	0.456
	Z (obs)	.307 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.042 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.588 (n.s.)	
SINC*USE	r	0.462	0.448	r	0.406	0.408	r	0.496	0.447
	Z (obs)	.221 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.016 (n.s)		Z (obs)	0.649 (n.s.)	
INT*FAV	r	0.721	0.715	r	0.656	0.661	r	0.753	0.719
	Z (obs)	.155 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.059 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.765 (n.s.)	
INT*USE	r	0.683	0.699	r	0.674	0.599	r	0.689	0.717
	Z (obs)	-0.383 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.849 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.57 (n.s.)	
FAV*USE	r	0.789	0.762	r	0.751	0.67	r	0.81	0.778
	Z (obs)	.849 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	1.105 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.893 (n.s.)	

Table 49: Comparison of Correlation Coefficients (Cancer-Causes and Social Causes Samples)

	Cancer-Causes Sample			**Social-Causes Sample**		
		Women (N=156)	Men (N=101)		Women (N=158)	Men (N=218)
PI*FIT	r	.38	.33	r	0.61	0.45

	Z(obs)	0.442 (n.s.)		Z(obs)	**2.128**	
PI*SINC	r	.46	.15	r	0.57	0.41
	Z (obs)	**2.676**		Z (obs)	**2.011**	
PI*INT	r	0.37	0.15	r	0.53	0.44
	Z (obs)	1.834 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	1.119 (n.s.)	
PI*FAV	r	0.36	0.14	r	0.43	0.41
	Z (obs)	1.824 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.23 (n.s.)	
PI*USE	r	0.33	0.07	r	0.39	0.39
	Z (obs)	**2.108**		Z (obs)	0 (n.s.)	
FIT*SINC	r	0.47	0.49	r	0.56	0.59
	Z (obs)	-0.201 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.425 (n.s.)	
FIT*INT	r	0.51	0.48	r	0.54	0.58
	Z (obs)	0.307 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.553 (n.s.)	
FIT*FAV	r	0.42	0.38	r	0.48	0.46
	Z (obs)	0.368 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.244 (n.s.)	
FIT*USE	r	0.5	0.36	r	0.45	0.48
	Z (obs)	1.333 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.363 (n.s.)	
SINC*INT	r	0.47	0.50	r	0.49	0.52
	Z (obs)	-0.303 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.382 (n.s.)	
SINC*FAV	r	0.48	0.43	r	0.50	0.45
	Z (obs)	0.488 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.613 (n.s.)	
SINC*USE	r	0.47	0.35	r	0.47	0.45
	Z (obs)	1.118 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.241 (n.s.)	
INT*FAV	r	0.67	0.65	r	0.76	0.72
	Z (obs)	0.274 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	0.841 (n.s.)	
INT*USE	r	0.68	0.6	r	0.69	0.72
	Z (obs)	1.051 (n.s.)		Z (obs)	-0.566 (n.s.)	
FAV*USE	r	0.75	0.69	r	0.82	0.77
	Z	0.966 (n.s.)		Z	1.295 (n.s.)	

	(obs)		(obs)	

5.3.7 Hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10 focuses specifically on the female sample of respondents. In this effort to investigate the notion of gender solidarity among women in sponsorship settings, women's expressed support of women's sports and causes/charities is first correlated with the three levels of sponsorship response. The strength of correlation coefficients is then compared between the women's hockey sample and the men's hockey sample to determine if the gender of the sponsored sport impacts women's sponsorship response.

H10a: Gender support for women (GSW) has a direct and positive effect on women's sponsorship response (INT, FAV, and/or USE).

H10b: Gender support for women (GSW) has a greater influence on women's sponsorship response (INT, FAV, and/or USE) at female sporting events than at male sporting events.

The relationship between GSW and all levels of female sponsorship response (INT, FAV, and USE) was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. Hypothesis 10a was supported as all associations were found to be positive and significantly correlated to the investigated variables by the all-events female sample as well as the female samples recruited at both women's and men's hockey events. For the all-events female sample, the association between GSW and the three levels of sponsorship response were as follows: GSW*INT: r=.38, GSW*FAV: r=.38, and GSW*USE: r=.29. At women's hockey games, women's reported

correlations were GSW*INT: r=.29, GSW*FAV: r=.32, and GSW*USE: r=.23. At the investigated men's hockey games, the observed correlations were all stronger: GSW*INT: r=.42, GSW*FAV: r=.40, and GSW*USE: r=.34. The GSW correlation findings for all modeled variables are presented in Table 50. Very strong correlations were also observed with other study constructs (i.e., GSW*PI: r=.69 for women from the men's hockey sample) beyond the considerations of this specific hypothesis. Men's reported GSW also had significant correlation with all levels of response.

Table 50: Correlation Matrix for Female Respondents

Female Respondents – All-Events Sample							
		PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
GSW	Pearson Correlation	.60**	.37**	.49**	.38**	.38**	.29**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2	.36	.14	.24	.14	.14	.08
	N	314	314	314	314	314	314
Female Respondents at Women's Hockey Events							
		PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
GSW	Pearson Correlation	.383**	.354**	.442**	.291**	.315**	.227*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.012
	R^2	.147	.125	.195	.085	.099	.052
	N	121	121	121	121	121	121
Female Respondents at Men's Hockey Events							
GSW	Pearson Correlation	.688**	.489**	.503**	.424**	.400**	.339**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2	.473	.239	.253	.180	.160	.115
	N	193	193	193	193	193	193

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

To determine if there was a significant difference in the interaction of GSW and women's response to sponsorship based on the gender of hockey being played, the strength of the above correlation coefficients were compared between the women's hockey sample and the men's

hockey sample. The same procedure of comparison relied upon for the testing of hypotheses 5b-9b were again applied in this case. Correlation values were converted to observed values of z to check if z values were beyond the boundary of insignificance ($-1.96 < Z_{(obs)} < 1.96$). Computed $Z_{(obs)}$ values were within the range of -1.3 to -0.8 and therefore no significant differences in correlation coefficients were confirmed. H10b was therefore rejected. Based on these findings, women's stronger identified support of women did not translate into more favourable sponsorship response at women's sporting events than it did at men's sporting events. The impact of GSW on sponsorship outcomes was not event specific as this influence was noted at both women's and men's sporting events with no meaningful differences observed between these two types of events. Table 51 contains all computed values for this comparison of correlations.

Table 51: Comparison of Women's Correlation Coefficients at Women's vs. Men's Events

		Women's Hockey (N=121)	Men's Hockey (N=193)
GSW*INT	r	.291	.424
	$Z_{(obs)}$	-1.305 (n.s.)	
GSW*FAV	r	0.315	0.400
	$Z_{(obs)}$	-0.832 (n.s.)	
GSW*USE	r	0.227	0.339
	$Z_{(obs)}$	-1.04 (n.s.)	

5.3.8 Hypothesis 11

This final hypothesis considers the direct impact of gender on sponsorship response.

H11: Direct sponsorship response (INT, FAV and/or USE) at charity-linked sporting events is stronger among female spectators than male spectators.

Independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare the sponsorship response scores (on all three levels of INT, FAV, and USE) for women and men. When considering the all-events sample, no significant differences were observed. Similar non-significant results were found with the sample of respondents from the women's hockey games. This finding was confirmed for both the collected samples for women (n=121) and men (n=76), as well as for randomly equalized samples of n=76. For the men's hockey sample, t-test results with the collected sample sizes were close to significant (p=.09) for the INT variable. The male sample was also randomly reduced to be equal with the women's sample (n=193). This treatment yielded one significant difference. Women's INT score (M=3.83, SD=.84) was significantly higher than male respondents' (M=3.64, SD=.86; t(384) = 2.13, p=.03, two-tailed) for this particular men's hockey sample. The magnitude of the difference in the means however (mean difference = .18, 95% CI: .014 to .354) was quite small (eta squared =0.01).

For the cancer-causes sample, men indicated significantly stronger FAV (M=4.13, SD=.616) than women (M=3.86, SD=.733; t(255) = -3.08, p=.002, two-tailed). This is a unique finding from all other samples and is contrary to the expectations of H11. The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = -.27, 95% CI: -.445 to -.098) was moderate (eta squared =0.04). These same findings were confirmed with equal sample size treatment for this cancer-causes group.

H11 was supported at all levels of response (i.e., INT, FAV, and USE) with the social-causes sample. In this case, women were found to have significantly stronger INT (M=3.85, SD=.834) than men (M=3.64, SD=.839; t(374) = 2.48, p=.01, two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = -.22, 95% CI: .045 to .389) was however small (eta squared =0.02). Women also reported greater FAV (M=3.90, SD=.806) than men (M=3.71, SD=.794;

t(374) = 2.18, p=.03, two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in these means (mean difference = -.18, 95% CI: .018 to .346) was quite small (eta squared =0.01). Women of the social-causes sample also revealed greater USE (M=3.83, SD=.883) than men (M=3.63, SD=.875; t(374) = 2.13, p=.03, two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in these means (mean difference = -.195, 95% CI: .015 to .376) was also quite small (eta squared =0.01). These same significant findings were confirmed with equal sample size treatment for this social-causes group.

H11 was therefore not supported with the all-events, women's hockey, men's hockey, and cancer-causes samples. H11 was however supported at all levels of effect (i.e., INT, FAV, and USE) with the social-causes sample. T-test results for these five sample treatments are included in Table 52.

Table 52: T-Test for Equality of Means – Sponsorship Response

							95% Confidence Interval	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Eta-Squared	Mean Differences	Std. Error Differences	Lower	Upper
ALL-EVENTS SAMPLE								
INT	1.427	631	.154	n.s.	.092	.064	-.034	.218
FAV	.534	631	.594	n.s.	.033	.061	-.087	.153
USE	1.014	631	.311	n.s.	.068	.067	-.063	.198
Women's Hockey Sample								
INT	-.782	195	.435	n.s.	-.084	.107	-.295	.127
FAV	-1.315	195	.190	n.s.	-.128	.097	-.319	.064
USE	-.943	195	.347	n.s.	-.104	.110	-.321	.113
Women's Hockey Equalized Sample								
INT	-1.136	150	.258	n.s.	-.138	.122	-.378	.102
FAV	-1.843	150	.067	n.s.	-.197	.107	-.409	.014
USE	-1.611	150	.109	n.s.	-.197	.123	-.440	.045
Men's Hockey Sample								
INT	1.729	434	.085	n.s.	.139	.081	-.019	.297
FAV	.827	434	.408	n.s.	.064	.078	-.088	.217

USE	1.477	434	.140	n.s.	.124	.084	-.041	.289
Men's Hockey Equalized Sample								
INT	2.128	384	.034	.01	.184	.086	.014	.354
FAV	.913	384	.362	n.s.	.075	.082	-.087	.237
USE	1.734	384	.084	n.s.	.155	.090	-.021	.332
Cancer-Causes Sample								
INT	-1.722	255	.086	n.s.	-.163	.095	-.350	.023
FAV	-3.083	255	.002	.04	-.271	.088	-.445	-.098
USE	-1.931	255	.055	n.s.	-.187	.097	-.377	.004
Cancer-Causes Equalized Sample								
INT	-.866	200	.388	n.s.	-.089	.103	-.292	.114
FAV	-2.442	200	.015	.03	-.228	.093	-.412	-.044
USE	-1.001	200	.318	n.s.	-.104	.104	-.309	.101
Social-Causes Sample								
INT	2.479	374	.014	.02	.217	.087	.045	.389
FAV	2.183	374	.030	.01	.182	.083	.018	.346
USE	2.127	374	.034	.01	.195	.092	.015	.376
Social-Causes Equalized Sample								
INT	2.256	314	.025	.02	.218	.097	.028	.409
FAV	2.083	314	.038	.01	.193	.093	.011	.375
USE	2.371	314	.018	.02	.244	.103	.042	.446

Independent sample t-tests were also conducted for the five individual events. Event 1 (NU Real Men Wear Pink) generated all significant differences revealing higher mean scores for men (INT:M=4.12; FAV: M=4.32; USE: M=4.20) across all three variables than for women (INT:M=3.70, FAV: M=3.60, USE: M=3.76). Mann-Whitney U tests for this same small sample confirmed significant differences but only at the FAV and USE levels. For FAV, men's results were significantly stronger (Md=4.50, n=25) than women's (Md=3.50, n=35), U=204.5, z=-3.59, p=.00, r=0.46. For USE, men's results were also significantly stronger (Md=4.0, n=25) than women's (Md=4.00, n=35), U=312.50, z=-1.95, r=0.25. These results fail to support H11.

H11 was not supported for events 2, 3 and 4 as no significant differences in mean response scores between genders were discovered with these sample groups. This was confirmed through both independent sample t-tests and the non-parametric equivalent of Mann-Whitney U tests.

Event 5 (Sudbury Wolves Teddy Bear Toss) revealed significant differences in favour of women at all levels of response, thereby fully supporting H11. Women expressed significantly stronger INT in the sponsor (M=3.98, SD=.78) than did men (M=3.64, SD=.82; t(163) = 2.78, p=.006). The magnitude of the difference in these INT means (mean difference = .45, 95% CI: .10 to .59) was moderate (eta squared=.05). Women also reported significantly greater favourability toward the sponsor of this event (M=3.95, SD=.75) than did men (M=3.56, SD=.96; t(151)=2.97, p=.003). The magnitude of the difference in the FAV means (mean difference = .40, 95% CI: .133 to .661) was again moderate (eta squared =.05). Women at this event also reported statistically higher intentions to USE the sponsors products (M=3.89, SD=.93) than did men (M=3.55, SD=.99; t(163)=2.26, p=.03). The magnitude of the difference in the INT means (mean difference = .34, 95% CI: .043 to .634) was smaller than the other observed response levels (eta squared=0.03). Significance at all three levels of response for Event 5 were also confirmed through non-parametric testing.

Based on the above event-specific results, H11 is only supported by the Event 5 sample and not supported with respondents of events 1, 2, 3, and 4. Event specific results for the testing of this hypothesis are presented in Table 53.

Table 53: Gender Comparison Results - Event Specific Sponsorship Response

	Independent Sample T-Tests						95% Confidence		Mann-Whitney U Tests			
	t	df	Sig.	Eta-Squared	Mean Differences	Std. Error Differences	Lower	Upper	u	z	Sig. (p)	Effect Size (r)
Event 1												
INT	-2.07	58	.043	0.07	-.420	.203	-.826	-.014	326	-1.73	0.08	n.s.
FAV	-3.88	58	.000	0.21	-.740	.191	-1.122	-.358	204.5	-3.59	0.00	0.46
USE	-2.20	58	.032	0.08	-.443	.201	-.845	-.040	312.5	-1.95	0.05	0.25
Event 2												
INT	.02	97	.980	n.s.	.003	.127	-.249	.256	1195	-0.02	0.99	n.s.
FAV	-.48	97	.635	n.s.	-.058	.121	-.298	.183	1171.5	-0.19	0.85	n.s.
USE	-.08	97	.934	n.s.	-.012	.143	-.297	.273	1174.5	-0.17	0.87	n.s.
Event 3												
INT	-.85	96	.400	n.s.	-.147	.174	-.492	.198	959.5	-0.99	0.32	n.s.
FAV	-1.13	96	.263	n.s.	-.172	.153	-.475	.131	924.0	-1.29	0.20	n.s.
USE	-.91	96	.367	n.s.	-.148	.163	-.471	.176	919.0	-1.31	0.19	n.s.
Event 4												
INT	.54	209	.587	n.s.	.068	.125	-.178	.314	4895.5	-0.34	0.73	n.s.
FAV*	.21	120	.834	n.s.	.024	.116	-.206	.255	4858.0	-0.44	0.66	n.s.
USE	.65	209	.517	n.s.	.076	.117	-.155	.306	4825.0	-0.52	0.60	n.s.
Event 5												
INT	2.78	163	.006	0.05	.345	.124	.100	.590	2562.0	-2.8	0.01	0.22
FAV**	2.97	151	.003	0.05	.397	.134	.133	.661	2610.0	-2.7	0.01	0.21
USE	2.26	163	.025	0.03	.338	.150	.043	.634	2655.5	-2.5	0.01	0.19

*Levene's Test for Equality of Variances is significant (F=5.98, Sign=.015) therefore equal variance is not assumed in this case and alternate values are presented according to equal variances not assumed.

**Levene's Test for Equality of Variances is significant (F=8.506, Sign=.004) therefore equal variance is not assumed in this case and alternate values are presented according to equal variances not assumed.

5.4 Model Testing

The final step of this research was to test the proposed model of consumer processing of CRSS. The interdisciplinary review of literature presented in this dissertation identified a set of possible predictors of the outcomes of sponsorship. Standard multiple regression was used to test the fit of the proposed model as a whole as well as the relative contribution of each considered variable. Independent variables in this case included: Gender (dichotomous independent variable), PIC, PIS, GSW, GSM, FIT and SINC. Given the significant difference in the influence of PIS and PIC observed in preceding analysis, PIC and PIS were treated independently in order to

distinguish between the relative predictive power of each of these variables on sponsorship response. For this analysis, the three levels of sponsorship outcomes (INT, FAV, and USE) were combined into the dependent variable of Sponsorship Response (SR). The internal consistency of this 6-item scale is strong with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .92.

The assumptions of multiple regression were met as the relationships modeled did not violate the assumptions of multicollinearity, linearity and homoscedasticity. Given the large sample size for this analysis, the assumption concerning normality is consistent with the rationale presented in the initial analysis. Tolerance values ranged from .30 to .88 (above a cut-off point of .10) and the variance inflation factors (VIF) were below a cut-off of 10 with results ranging from 1.2 to 3.3 (Pallant, 2010). Normal probability plots of the regressions standardized residuals and scatterplots were also observed to ensure no violation of the above assumptions.

The multiple regression model for the all-events sample was significant and indicated that 39.8% of the variance in SR was explained by the tested model. Of the independent variables included in this model, FIT (β=.278) and SINC (β=.271) made the strongest unique contributions to SR while PIC (β=.186) also significantly contributed to the prediction of SR. Gender (β=.004), PIS (β=.009), GSW (β=.067) and GSM (β=-.016) did not make significant contributions. The multiple regression coefficients are presented in Table 54.

Table 54: Multiple Regression Coefficient: All-Events Sample

Model	Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		5.218	.000	.603	1.331					
Gender	.004	.127	.899	-.089	.101	-.036	.005	.004	.880	1.137

PIC	.186	4.681	.000	.112	.273	.468	.184	.145	.609	1.642
PIS	.009	.263	.793	-.047	.061	.234	.011	.008	.833	1.200
GSW	.067	1.171	.242	-.042	.167	.398	.047	.036	.298	3.358
GSM	-.016	-.286	.775	-.127	.094	.401	-.011	-.009	.302	3.307
FIT	.278	7.196	.000	.190	.333	.522	.277	.223	.647	1.546
SINC	.271	6.561	.000	.177	.328	.531	.254	.204	.566	1.767
Dependent variable: SR										

The same model was run a second time with the data set split by gender. Gender as an independent variable was removed from this regression. The model was significant for both genders (p=.000), explaining 38.6% of SR variance for women and 39.3% for men. For women, the strongest unique predictor of SR was FIT (β=.288), followed closely by SINC (β=.269) and to a lesser extent (but still significant), PIC (β=.151). Men's strongest predictors were the same three variables as women however SINC was the greatest (β=.285), followed by FIT (β=.254) and then PIC (β=.220). All other variables were not significant as unique contributors to SR. The results these from multiple regression tests for the samples of women and men are presented in Table 55 and Table 56.

Table 55: Multiple Regression Coefficient: Women Sample

Model	Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		4.458	.000	.589	1.520					
PIC	.151	2.533	.012	.034	.271	.462	.143	.113	.564	1.772
PIS	.000	-.007	.994	-.078	.078	.251	.000	.000	.778	1.285
GSW	.042	.588	.557	-.104	.192	.386	.034	.026	.388	2.578
GSM	.027	.375	.708	-.115	.169	.406	.021	.017	.379	2.635
FIT	.288	5.293	.000	.167	.365	.517	.289	.237	.678	1.476

SINC	.269	4.598	.000	.142	.353	.522	.254	.206	.585	1.711
Dependent variable: SR										

Table 56: Multiple Regression Coefficient: Men Sample

Model	Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		4.134	.000	.506	1.426					
PIC	.220	4.012	.000	.120	.351	.460	.221	.177	.646	1.548
PIS	.012	.245	.807	-.068	.088	.207	.014	.011	.820	1.220
GSW	.075	.824	.411	-.096	.233	.396	.047	.036	.237	4.218
GSM	-.058	-.644	.520	-.240	.121	.372	-.036	-.028	.241	4.152
FIT	.254	4.580	.000	.138	.347	.515	.251	.202	.633	1.581
SINC	.285	4.827	.000	.159	.377	.528	.264	.213	.559	1.790

5.5 Summary of Results

This study investigated many (i.e., seventeen) relationships across a total of ten different sample groups. Some hypotheses were supported across all investigated samples (i.e., H5a, H6a, H7a, H8a, H9a) while others were fully rejected (i.e., H2, H4, H8b, H9b, H10b). There were also cases of mixed results, as expected outcomes were realized with some sample groups but rejected by others (i.e., H1, H5b, H6b, H7b, H11). To effectively capture all of these key findings, several summary visuals are presented. Table 57 itemizes the relationships, analytical procedures, and results of each individual hypothesis. Table 58 contrasts results across the ten sample treatments and condenses findings as either supported (denoted by ✔) or non-supported (denoted by X). Figure 7 follows, with an enhanced version of the consumer processing of CRSS framework that incorporates the results of this study.

Table 57: Summary of Findings from Tested Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Relationships	Analyses	Results
H1: Females are more highly involved with cause (PIC) than males at charity-linked sporting events.	Gender → PIC	T-Tests	Supported (all-events, men's hockey, social-causes, event 5) Not Supported (women's hockey, cancer-causes, events 1-4)
H2: Males are more highly involved with sport (PIS) than females at charity-linked hockey sporting events.	Gender → PIS	T-Tests	Not Supported
H3: Females are more supportive of women's sport and causes/charities (GSW) than are males.	Gender → GSW	T-Tests	Supported (with all samples, except event 1)
H4: Males are more supportive of men's sporting events and men's charitable/social causes (GSM) than are females.	Gender → GSM	T-Tests	Not Supported
H5a: Personal involvement (PI) has a direct and positive effect on perceived sponsor-event fit (FIT) in charity-linked sport settings.	PI → FIT	Correlation	Supported
H5b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of PI*FIT and the effect is greater for women.	Gender → PI*FIT	Comparison of Correlations	Supported (social-causes sample only) Not Supported (all-events, women's hockey, men's hockey)

H6a: Personal involvement (PI) has a direct and positive effect on perceived sincerity (SINC) of the sponsor in charity-linked sport settings.	PI	→	SINC	Correlation	Supported
H6b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of PI *SINC and the effect is greater for women.	Gender	→	PI*SINC	Comparison of Correlations	Supported (all-events, men's hockey, cancer-causes, social-causes) Not Supported (women's hockey sample)
H7a: Personal involvement (PI) has a direct and positive effect on sponsorship response (INT, FAV, and/or USE) in charity-linked sport settings.	PI	→	INT FAV USE	Correlation	Supported
H7b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of PI*INT, PI*FAV, and PI*USE and the effect is greater for women.	Gender	→	PI*INT PI*FAV PI*USE	Comparison of Correlations	Supported (cancer-causes sample only) Not Supported (all-events, women's hockey, men's hockey, social-causes)
H8a: Perceived sponsor-event fit (FIT) has a direct and positive effect on sponsorship response (INT, FAV and/or USE) in charity-linked sport settings.	FIT	→	INT FAV USE	Correlation	Supported
H8b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of FIT* INT, FIT*FAV, and FIT*USE and the effect is greater for women.	Gender	→	FIT*INT FIT*FAV FIT*USE	Comparison of Correlations	Not Supported

H9a: Perceived sincerity (SINC) of the sponsor has a direct and positive effect on sponsorship response (INT, FAV and/or USE) in charity-linked sport settings.	SINC	→	INT FAV USE	Correlation	Supported
H9b: Gender has a significant impact on the interaction of SINC*INT, SINC*FAV, and SINC*USE and the effect is greater for women.	Gender	→	SINC*INT SINC*FAV SINC*USE	Comparison of Correlations	Not Supported
H10a: Gender support for women (GSW) has a direct and positive effect on women's sponsorship response (INT, FAV, and/or USE).	GSW (female sample)	→	INT FAV USE	Correlation	Supported
H10b: Gender support for women (GSW) has a greater influence on women's sponsorship response (INT, FAV, and/or USE) at female sporting events than at male sporting events.	GSW (female sample)	→	INT FAV USE (women's hockey)	Comparison of Correlations	Not Supported
H11: Direct sponsorship response (INT, FAV and/or USE) at charity-linked sporting events is stronger among female spectators than male spectators.	Gender	→	INT FAV USE	T-Tests	Supported (men's hockey at INT level, social causes and event 5 at all levels) Not Supported (all-events, women's hockey, cancer-causes, events 1-4)
Proposed Model - Consumer Processing of CRSS					Significant Fit of 39.8%

Table 58: Comparison of Findings across Samples

	All-Events	Women's Hockey	Men's Hockey	Cancer-Causes	Social-Causes	Event 1	Event 2	Event 3	Event 4	Event 5
H1	✔	X	✔	X	✔	X	X	X	X	✔
H2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
H3	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	X	✔	✔	✔	✔
H4	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
H5a	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔
H5b	X	X	X	X	✔	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
H6a	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔
H6b	✔	X	✔	✔	✔	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
H7a	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔
H7b	X	X	X	✔	X	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
H8a	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔
H8b	X	X	X	X	X	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
H9a	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔
H9b	X	X	X	X	X	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
H10a	✔	✔	✔	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
H10b		X		n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
H11	X	X	✔ (INT)	X	✔ (INT, FAV, USE)	X	X	X	X	✔ (INT, FAV, USE)

✔ : Supported Hypothesis
X: Non-Supported Hypothesis

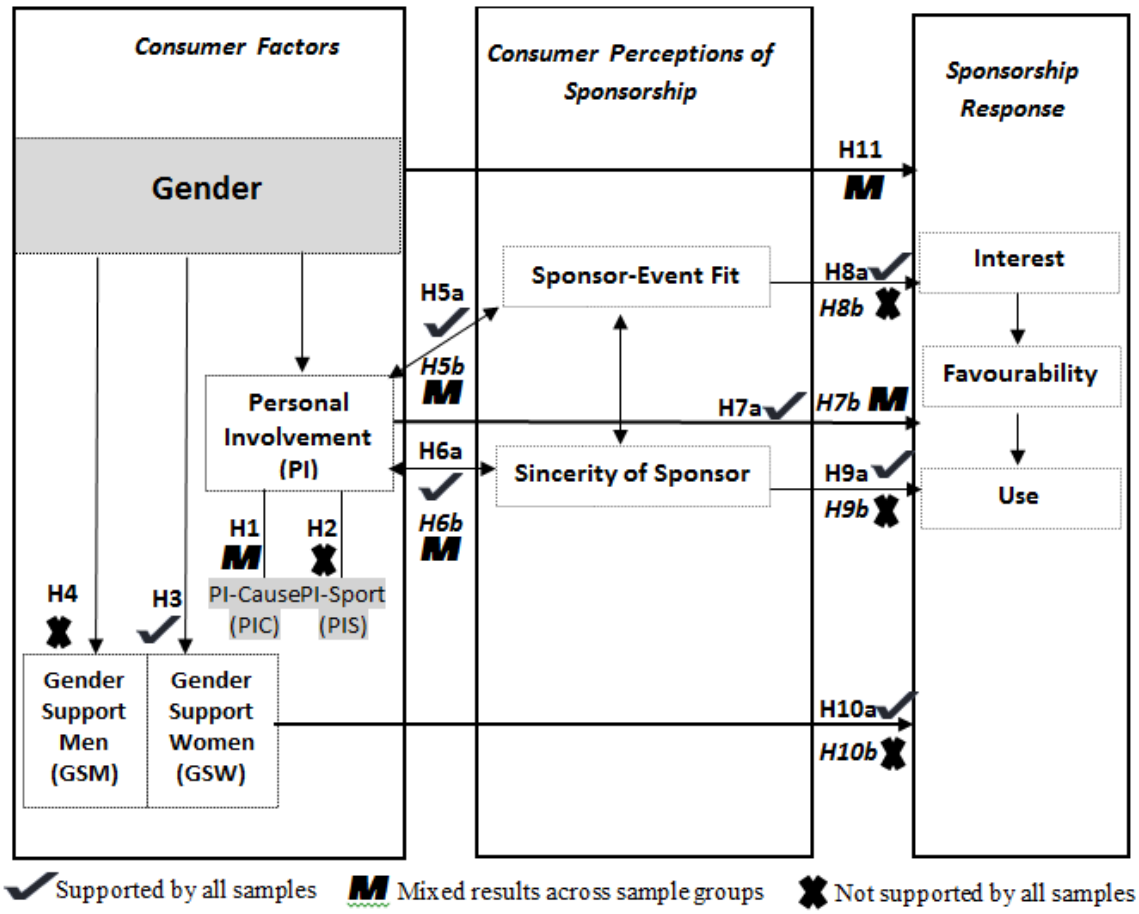

Figure 7: CRSS Conceptual Framework - Results

Figure 7 portrays the results of this study. In this representation, supported hypotheses are depicted by the following symbol: ✓, non-supported hypotheses are depicted by: ✖, and results that were mixed across sample groups are denoted by: M. These visual summaries of results guide the following discussion of findings.

Chapter 6

6.1 Discussion

This chapter discusses the empirical findings of this research. Multiple relationships were integrated across the various hypotheses of this study and therefore results are considered according to the key constructs examined in the proposed CRSS process. This section begins by reviewing the consumer factors of: i) personal involvement, and ii) gender support. Next the consumer perceptions of sponsorship factors are considered, including: iii) sponsor-event fit, and iv) perceived sincerity of the sponsor, followed by v) sponsorship response. The interactions of these variables on sponsorship response are then discussed as testing results of the proposed model are reviewed.

Throughout each section of this discussion chapter, results are compared to similar published studies. Table 59 is a summary of thirty-seven studies that also considered similar relationships in the context of sport, cause or CRSS. This table serves as an important guide in contrasting the findings of this study with the published work of others. Of the reviewed research, there are twenty-four sport studies and one festival/fair sponsorship study. The majority of sport sponsorship studies are based on male sports as only two of these sport investigations considered female sport. Six studies measured consumer response to cause associations and six studies focused specifically on CRSS. This summary table is structured by type of sponsorship (sport, female sport, cause, CRSS) and is presented in chronological order in order to appreciate the progression of research in these areas. For instance, efforts concerning CRSS are more recent with studies published during the 2003-2013 period. Ten of the reviewed studies commented on gender differences observed in these tested relationships of consumer response. The levels of

response span all three stages of the hierarchy of effect (i.e., cognitive, affective, and behavioural) and are specified in the summary table. This dissertation offers a unique contribution to the field as none of these published studies were specific to the Canadian marketplace with shared results stemming from the US, Australia, Belgium, Austria, Korea, Ireland, Greece, and Turkey. The concept of gender support in the context of sponsorship effects was introduced in this current study and therefore omitted from this comparison table (but fully discussed in text).

Following a thorough discussion of research results, an answer is provided to the question underlining this CRSS effects dissertation: "Does Gender Matter"? Contributions of this dissertation are then highlighted followed by a presentation of the implications of these findings. Limitations of this study are next acknowledged before concluding with directions for future research.

Table 59: Summary of Sponsorship Effects Studies

				Consumer Factors- Personal Involvement				Sponsorship Factors and Response				
Author(s) (Year)	**Type**	**N**	**Method**	**Gender * PI**	**PI*FIT**	**PI* SINC**	**PI* SR**	**FIT* SR**	**SINC * SR**	**Gender * SR**	**SR Level**	**Gender Effects**
Pham (1992)	Sport (soccer)	85 students (Belgium)	Experiment				✔				cognitive	Males outperformed women in sponsor recognition.
McDaniel & Kinney (1998)	Sport	215 students (US)	Experiment							X ✔ ✔	cognitive affective behavioural	Gender did not impact ability to recognize Olympic sponsors. Females had more favourable attitudes and purchase intentions.
Gwinner & Eaton (1999)	Sport	360 students (US)	Experiment				✔				cognitive	
McDaniel (1999)	Sport	216 students (US)	Experiment							✔ ✔	cognitive affective behavioural	Females responded more favourable (attitude and purchase intention) than men.
Speed & Thompson (2000)	Sport	195 students (Australian)	Experiment		(Personal Liking) ✔	(Personal Liking) X	✔	✔	✔		cognitive affective behavioural	

				Consumer Factors- Personal Involvement				Sponsorship Factors and Response				
Author(s) (Year)	**Type**	**N**	**Method**	**Gender * PI**	**PI* FIT**	**PI* SINC**	**PI* SR**	**FIT* SR**	**SINC * SR**	**Gender * SR**	**SR Level**	**Gender Effects**
Madrigal (2001)	Sport (university)	368 (Ohio)	Telephone				(Team ID) ✔				affective behavioural	
Meenaghan (2001b)		Ireland UK Europe	Expert Interview/ Focus Groups		✔	(Goodwill) ✔	✔				cognitive affective behavioural	
Deane, Smith, & Adams (2003)	Sport	109 (US) golfers	Field Survey					✔			cognitive	
Grohs, Wagner, & Vsetecka (2004)	Sport (alpine ski)	132 (Austria)	Field Survey				✔	✔			cognitive	
Grohs & Reisinger (2005)	Sport (alpine ski)	125 (Austria)	Field Survey				✔	✔			cognitive	
Close, Finney, Lacey, & Sneath (2006)	Sport (cycling)	1741 (US)	Field Surveys				✔				affective behavioural	
Koo, Quarterman & Flynn (2006)	Sport (college)	427 students (US)	Student Surveys					✔			cognitive affective behavioural	

				Consumer Factors- Personal Involvement				Sponsorship Factors and Response				
Author(s) (Year)	**Type**	**N**	**Method**	**Gender * PI**	**PI*FIT**	**PI* SINC**	**PI* SR**	**FIT* SR**	**SINC * SR**	**Gender* SR**	**SR Level**	**Gender Effects**
Tobar (2006)	Sport (TV-Super Bowl)	N1=81 students N2=111 parents (US)	Survey	✔						**X**	behavioural	Men reported higher sport fandom scores. Gender did not influence purchase intentions.
Donahay & Risenberger (2007)	Sport (car racing)	160 (Australia)	Field Surveys				✔	✔			cognitive	
Lings & Owen (2007)	Sport (football)	250 (Australia)	On-Line Survey				(Team ID) ✔				behavioural	
Gwinner & Bennett (2008)	Sport (action)	552 Fans (US)	Field Surveys		(Team ID) ✔		✔	✔			cognitive affective behavioural	
Ko, Kim, Claussen, & Kim (2008)	Sport (soccer)	390 (Korean)	Field Surveys				✔				cognitive affective behavioural	
Kinney, McDaniel, & DeGaris (2008)	Sport	935 NASCAR Fans (US)	Telephone Survey				✔			✔	cognitive	Males were able to recall a larger number of sponsors that were women.

				Consumer Factors- Personal Involvement				Sponsorship Factors and Response				
Author(s) (Year)	**Type**	**N**	**Method**	**Gender * PI**	**PI*FIT**	**PI* SINC**	**PI* SR**	**FIT* SR**	**SINC * SR**	**Gende r* SR**	**SR Level**	**Gender Effects**
Bennett, Ferreira, Lee, & Polite (2009)	Sport (action)	552 (US)	Field Survey				✔				behavioural	Young males more likely to consumer Mountain Dew than females. (Note: sample=65% male)
Gwinner, Larson, & Swanson (2009)	Sport (football)	N1=881 N2=612 (US)	Field Surveys				✔	✔			cognitive behavioural	
Tsiotsou & Alexandris (2009)	Sport (basketball)	354 (Greece)	Field Surveys								cognitive behavioural	
Alexandris & Tsiotsou (2012)	Sport (basketball)	354 (Greece)	Field Surveys				✔				affective cognitive behavioural	
Sozer & Vardar (2009)	Fair (SpringFest)	N1=250 N2=240 Students (Turkey)	Student Surveys					✔			cognitive	
Alay (2008)	Female Sport (volleyball)	413 Female Students (Turkey)	Post-Event Survey		(Personal Liking) ✔		(Personal Liking) **X**	✔	✔		cognitive affective behavioural	
Maxwell & Lough (2009)	Female Sport (basketball)	N1=316 N2=334 Spectators	Field Surveys				✔			**X**	cognitive	

				Consumer Factors- Personal Involvement				Sponsorship Factors and Response				
Author(s) (Year)	**Type**	**N**	**Method**	**Gender * PI**	**PI*FIT**	**PI* SINC**	**PI* SR**	**FIT* SR**	**SINC * SR**	**Gender * SR**	**SR Level**	**Gender Effects**
Ross, Patterson, & Strutts (1992)	CRM	238 (US)	Mall-Intercept Interviews							✔	affective behavioural	Women had more positive attitudes and stronger purchase intentions toward the firm that used CRM than did men.
Berger, Cunningham, & Kozinets (1999)	Cause Related Advertising	N1=196 N2=210 Students	Experiment				✔				affective behavioural	Female students had more positive attitudes and higher purchase intentions for brands that use CR-adv than did male students.
Becker-Olsen & Simmons (2002)	Social Sponsorship		Experiment					✔			cognitive affective behavioural	
Simmons & Becker-Olsen (2006)	Social Sponsorship	N1=236 N2=120 Students (US)	Experiment					✔			cognitive affective behavioural	

				Consumer Factors- Personal Involvement				Sponsorship Factors and Response				
Author(s) (Year)	**Type**	**N**	**Method**	**Gender * PI**	**PI*FIT**	**PI* SINC**	**PI* SR**	**FIT* SR**	**SINC * SR**	**Gender * SR**	**SR Level**	**Gender Effects**
Nan & Heo (2007)	CRM	100 Students (US)	Experiment					**X** (CRM impact regardless of FIT)				
Hyllegard, Yan, Ogle, & Attmann (2011)	CRM	562 Students (US)	Experiment	✔			✔			✔	behavioural	Women had higher cause involvement. Gender did not influence brand attitudes but did impact purchase intentions.
Irwin, Lachowetz, Cornwell, & Clark (2003)	CRSS (Spectator)	442 Spectators (US)	Field Survey								affective behavioural	Women response to CRSS was stronger than men in terms of favourable attitudes, beliefs and purchase intentions.
Roy & Graeff (2003)	Cause-Sport Marketing	500 (US)	Telephone Survey							✔	cognitive behavioural	Females more likely to have positive image of an organization if partnered with causes.

				Consumer Factors- Personal Involvement				Sponsorship Factors and Response				
Author(s) (Year)	**Type**	**N**	**Method**	**Gender * PI**	**PI*FIT**	**PI* SINC**	**PI* SR**	**FIT* SR**	**SINC * SR**	**Gender * SR**	**SR Level**	**Gender Effects**
Cornwell & Coote (2005)	CRSS (Participant)	501 women Participants (US)	Field Survey				✔				behavioural	
Walker & Kent (2009)	CSR-Sport	297 (US)	Field Survey				✔				affective behavioural	
Filo, Funk, & O'Brien (2010)	CRSS (Participant)	672 Participants (US)	On-Line (post-event)				✔				cognitive behavioural	
Close & Lacey (2013)	Sport (cycling)	1615 (US)	Field Surveys		✔		✔	✔	✔		behavioural	
Lafrance Horning, D. (2014)	*CRSS (Participant)*	*642 Spectators (Canada)*	*Field Surveys (5)*	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔	✔ (mixed results)	*cognitive affective behavioural*	*-Stronger PIC, GSW, GSM for women -PIC*SINC stronger for women -Women responded more favourably to sponsorships affiliated with social causes. -Men less impacted at women's sports. -Gender support among women impacts response.*

6.1.1 Personal Involvement in CRSS (H1, H2, H5, H6, H7)

Theories of personal involvement or forms of identification are well integrated in sport sponsorship research (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012; Close et al., 2006; Grohs et al., 2004; Grohs & Reisinger, 2005; Madrigal, 2001; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Gwinner et al., 2009; Ko et al., 2008; Lings & Owen, 2007; Meenaghan, 2001b; Pham, 1992), cause literature (Berger et al., 1999; Broderick et al., 2003; Chang, 2012; Hajjat, 2003; Hyllegard et al., 2011) and the emerging area of cause-related sport (Bennett et al., 2007; Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Filo et al., 2010; Irwin et al., 2003; Walker & Kent 2009). Given that the context of this sponsorship investigation focused on the trending hybrid of sport and cause, it was necessary to measure the construct of personal involvement in terms of both cause (H1) and sport (H2). This consideration was given to spectators of sporting events linked to a cause and did not extend to participants of such events. Personal involvement as a core construct was also considered in terms of impact on sponsor-event fit (H5) and perceived sincerity of the sponsor (H6) as well as a direct predictor of the three levels of sponsorship response (H7). Each relationship is discussed below.

As previously detailed, the affiliated causes varied by investigated event. Table 60 re-lists these details for the purpose of discussion.

Table 60: Cause Affiliations for Sampled Events

Event	Sport	Cause
1. Nipissing University - Real Men Wear Pink	Men's OUA Hockey	Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation
2. Laurentian University - Pink the Rink	Women's OUA Hockey	Northern Cancer Research Foundation
3. Nipissing University - Pink the Rink	Women's OUA Hockey	Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation
4. Ottawa Senators Food Drive Night	Men's NHL Hockey	Ottawa Food Bank
5. Sudbury Wolves Teddy Bear Toss	Men's OHL Hockey	Salvation Army Toy Drive

Gender * PIC (H1)

H1 expected women to indicate a greater level of involvement than men with the affiliated causes. In support of past sponsorship related findings (Berger et al., 1999; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Ross et al., 1992; Roy & Graeff, 2003), this hypothesis was found to be true for the all-events sample, spectators at the men's hockey games, the social-causes group, and attendees of Event #5. For the remaining sample treatments (i.e., women's hockey, cancer-causes, events 1-4), PIC scores were not significantly different between genders. The women's hockey sample was made up of two pink-themed cancer-cause events and therefore rendered the same non-significant results as the cancer-causes sample. Furthermore, both genders indicated greater involvement with cancer causes than with social causes. For men this difference was significant while in contrast, women's PIC was not significantly different between reported cause types. Men's strong attachment to pink cancer-related causes may be driven by a number of factors. Breast cancer is no longer a women-only issue. In addition to the female patient, a breast cancer diagnosis has a notable impact on men. Whether it's their wife, sister, mother, relative, or friend, men are invested as supporters and co-survivors of breast cancer (Varner, 2011). As presented in the review of sport as a gateway to goodness (section 2.2.2), most sport leagues have partnered with breast cancer as both a charitable act and a means of targeting a growing female fan base (Clark et al., 2009). Merging the masculinity of sports and the femininity of pink-marketed breast cancer (King, 2001) has created a more level platform of cause engagement across genders as evidenced by the results of this investigation. This knowledge that women and men are equally invested in breast cancer initiatives presents sponsors with multiple targeting opportunities.

As noted, women's expressed involvement with social causes was found to be significantly greater than men's. This was particularly true with respondents of the Sudbury Wolves Teddy Bear Toss event in support of the Salvation Army Christmas Toy Drive. Women's stronger attachment to this particular cause may be driven by the strong link to children in need during the Christmas season and women's tendencies to engage in more nurturing and demonstrative acts of caring in comparison to men's more individual forms of helping behaviour (Bosak, Sczesny, & Eagly, 2008; Einolf, 2011; Mesch et al., 2011). Women are typically also the primary Christmas shoppers and gift givers (Fischer & Arnold, 1990) which may have augmented their involvement in this charity-linked game that asked fans to donate a stuffed animal by tossing it on the ice after the first home team goal. The Salvation Army runs a women's shelter in the local Sudbury community which also may have strengthened ties between this charity and female respondents. Mesch et al. (2011) concluded that "gender matters in philanthropy" (p.35) and that women tend to be more empathetic, feel a greater need to help others, and are more impacted by emotional appeals for support. These factors may account for women's deeper involvement with these investigated social causes that asked fans to take specific action in donating food or a toy at the cause-linked sporting event.

When considering the all-events, men's hockey, social-causes and event 5 samples, H1 was supported and confirmed generally stronger involvement with causes among women. While significant differences persist with several investigated groups, it is important to also note that this disparity between genders is relatively small and that men also indicated commitment to these important community causes. Gender similarities noted at pink-themed events also implies that pink causes may be less gender-centric than originally presumed. Such a finding expands the selection of possible cause-affiliations and presents sponsors with opportunities to venture

beyond common areas of support and to differentiate in new and meaningful ways. Further discussion will consider whether these involvement levels brought about favourable sponsorship response.

Gender* PIS (H2)

H2 anticipated that male respondents would report greater involvement with the sport of hockey than would women. Despite exponential growth in female hockey since the first women's world hockey championships in 1990, hockey continues to be a male dominated sport as male players currently represent 86% of the 625,152 registered players in Canada (Hockey Canada, 2013). Previous studies have also found that men's involvement in sport (basketball, football, soccer and car racing in these referred cases) exceeded that of women's (Clark et al., 2009; Eccles & Harold, 1991; James & Ridinger, 2002; Kinney et al., 2008; Pham, 1992; Tobar, 2006). In addition to the above reasoning, the majority (69%) of surveys for this study was collected at men's hockey events. It was therefore surprising to discover that hockey involvement levels between surveyed men and women were not significantly different in any of the investigated samples. Certainly favourable bias toward the sport of hockey is expected to have influenced reported involvement levels as all research participants were intercepted as paid spectators of these various hockey events. Mere attendance suggests a certain level of involvement with the sport which contributes to high mean scores (women's M=4.00, men's M=4.04) but does not necessarily imply gender equivalence in response.

The growth of women's hockey in Canada is another probable justification for these comparable levels of gender involvement in hockey. Reported registration for female hockey has grown 131% since 1998 with over 87,000 girls and women participating in this sport (Hockey Canada,

2013). Wiley et al. (2000) also unexpectedly found that women's attraction to the sport of hockey was greater while this sport remained more central to the lives of men. The earlier report of PIS findings, further scrutinized the three measures of PIS. The first item measured consumer response to the statement: "Hockey is an important part of my life". At this level of inquiry, men and women had nearly identical responses in terms of the central role that the sport of hockey plays in their lives. In this case, the predisposed favour toward hockey as paid spectators is recognized. The second item of PIS measured response to the statement: "Hockey is one of the most enjoyable activities for me". For this sentiment of attraction to the sport, men's mean response (M=4.08) was slightly (but not significantly) greater than women's (M=3.96). In comparison, response to the final item of PIS: "Most of my friends are in some way connected to hockey" was slightly (but not significantly) higher for women (M=4.02) than for men (M=3.99). This distinction was most pronounced at women's hockey games as women's mean score jumped to M=4.17 and men's reached M=4.08. This observation may be reflective of the profile of supporters attending women's games and will be further discussed when the construct of gender support is presented. Although these PIS findings were not significantly different between genders, there is some suggested support for published studies concerning gender differences in the consumption of sport. For instance, women's attraction to the social aspect of sport and the opportunity to share sport experiences with friends (Armstrong, 2001; Bush et al., 2007; Clark et al., 2009; Dietz-Uhler et al., 2000; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Shani et al., 1992) may coincide with women's response to item three above and men's stronger response to the individual orientation of the sport. The fact that women and men expressed comparable involvement in the stereotypical male sport of hockey is encouraging for promoters of women's

hockey. The evolution of the women's game presents promising opportunities for commercial support (Theberge, 2000) and a meaningful outlet to engage both genders of hockey fans.

PI*FIT (H5)

As the review of sponsorship literature established, sponsor-event fit is an important factor in the consumer processing of sponsorship efforts and has been studied from various perspectives. Forms of involvement as precursors to consumer perceptions of fit has also been explored and validated in previous sport and cause sponsorship studies (Alay, 2008; Close & Lacey, 2013; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Meenaghan, 2001b; Speed & Thompson, 2000). H5 of this investigation anticipated similar results in CRSS settings. The correlation between the total measure of personal involvement (including both PIC and PIS) and perceptions of sponsor-event fit was confirmed as significant across all investigated samples.

When considering the all-events sample, the PI*FIT correlation coefficient was moderate at r=.44. This interaction was stronger for the men's hockey (r=.53) and social causes (r=.52) samples than for the women's hockey (r=.34) and cancer-causes (r=.37) samples. The overlap found between PI and FIT are among the strongest in the reviewed literature. Speed and Thompson (2000) reported the weakest reviewed relationship between "personal liking" and perceived fit at r=.15. Personal liking in this case considered similar measures (i.e., support, attendance, enjoyment, importance) as the current study. Extending Speed and Thompson's (2000) method, Alay (2008) found a slightly stronger correlation at r=.24 in an all-female sample investigation. In addition to the above sport sponsorship studies, Gwinner and Bennett (2008) reported further improved correlation (r=.30) between sport identification and sponsor-event fit. Their measure of sport identification was again similar with consideration for importance,

relevance, value and concern. In this case (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008), the sponsor of the investigated Dew Action Sport Tour was Panasonic and the research findings support the theory that highly involved fans more easily accept sponsor-event fit or will make a greater effort to adjust their thinking to establish an acceptable fit. Recommendations stemming from the findings of Gwinner and Bennett (2008) encouraged sponsors to activate their sponsorships in order to promote fit. All of the above studies were purely sport driven.

More recently, Close and Lacey (2013) measured fit at a cycling event that tied in the CSR efforts of the main sponsor. The relationship between PI (measured as activeness in sport) and perceived event-sponsor fit was again improved with correlation of r=.30. In the present study, all investigated sport events were connected to a cause. This more robust view of involvement considering both sport and cause may have contributed to the strongest observed correlations between levels of PI and perceptions of sponsor-event FIT. Table 61 compares (in chronological order) PI*FIT correlations from this study with the comparable research findings discussed above.

Table 61: Comparison of PI*FIT Correlations

Study	**Correlation (r)**
Speed & Thompson (2000)	0.15
Alay (2008)	0.24
Gwinner & Bennett (2008)	0.30
Close & Lacey (2013)	0.39
Current Study: All-Events Sample	0.44
Women's Hockey sample	0.34
Men's Hockey sample	0.53
Cancer-Causes sample	0.37
Social-Causes sample	0.52
Event #1: NU-RMWP	0.57
Event #2: LU-PTR	0.19

Event #3: NU-PTR	0.48
Event #4: Senators Food Drive	0.46
Event #5: Wolves Teddy Bear Toss	0.60

Event specific analysis revealed that Event 5 (Sudbury Wolves Teddy Bear Toss) produced the strongest observed PI*FIT correlation (r=.60). Shared variance (r^2) of 36% is significant overlap between PI and FIT. When comparing findings of these individual events, the degree of sponsorship activation is a key differentiator on results of perceived FIT as well as other sponsorship variables and outcomes (as will be later discussed). Although consumer opinions of activation were not measured in this study, activation efforts by sponsors and event organizers were noted. Given results from previous studies (Coppetti et al., 2009; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Olson & Thjomoe, 2011; Sozer & Vardar, 2009) it is reasonable to presume that activation levels could influence the perceptions of sponsor-event FIT among highly involved fans. Table 62 summarizes the activation activities for each attended event. Events 3, 4, and 5 had the most comprehensive activation programs that included such activities as promotional posters, advertising (radio, newspapers, internet), social media campaigns, broadcast mentions and press conferences. As evidenced by this activity log, heavily activated events were all effective in realizing strong perceived association between PI and FIT. Events 1 and 2 had minimal activation. In the case of Event 2, the result was non-significant correlation between PI*FIT (r=.19). It is less clear why Event 1, with a mix of sponsors and minimal activation still realized strong correlation (r=.57). This may be due to the fact that this was the 5th annual NU RMWP event with several regular returning sponsors. Previous years' efforts by longstanding corporate supporters may have therefore established some degree of rapport between these variables.

Table 62: Sponsorship Activation

CRSS Event	Sponsor	Charity	Activation Activities	PI*FIT Correlation
Event #1: NU-RMWP (5th Annual)	Unspecified	Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation	-non-sponsor specific promotion	r=.57
Event #2: LU-PTR (1st Annual)	Deluxe Hamburgers	Northern Cancer Research Foundation	- logo on event fundraising t-shirts	r=.19 (n.s.)
Event #3: NU-PTR (1st Annual)	True North Chevrolet	Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation	-posters -radio ads -social media -campus promotion -car display -game day announcements -promotional material	r=.48
Event #4: Senators Food Drive (Recurring Event)	Canadian Tire	Ottawa Food Bank	-radio ads -newspaper ads -social media (team, sponsor, non-profit accounts) -e-mail promotion -web promotion -broadcast mentions	r=.46
Event #5: Wolves Teddy Bear Toss (Annual Event)	Travelodge Hotel	Salvation Army	-radio ads -newspaper ads -arena posters -home game announcements -website promotion -sponsor press conference -broadcast mentions -Teddy Bear sales (at event)	r=.60

While activation efforts were observed for each investigated event, spectators' awareness and assessment of these activities were not measured. Sponsorship activation is an acknowledged determinant of sponsorship response that was beyond the scope of this particular inquiry. Consumer perceptions of such activation programs should be considered in future sponsorship research.

A final consideration in the discussion of PI*FIT is the presence of gender differences (H5b). In this case, the relationship between PI*FIT was significant for female respondents of all samples. For male respondents, significant PI*FIT correlations were reported with all but the women's hockey sample. Men of this particular group reported generally weaker PI effect on all predictors of sponsorship response. Specifically, (in addition to PI*FIT), PI*FAV and PI*USE were not significantly correlated with this population while PI*SINC (r=.28) and PI*INT (r=.24) were significant but weakly linked. Despite these insignificant results among this segment of male respondents however, the comparison of correlation coefficients between genders was not significantly different between women and men of the all-events, women's hockey, men's hockey, and cancer-causes samples. The only significant gender difference in PI*FIT was discovered among the social-causes sample where women's reported PI*FIT correlation was significantly higher than men's. Women's PI at sporting events linked to social causes was therefore a stronger predictor of perceptions of FIT than it was for men at these same events.

H1 established women's stronger PIC among four of the tested sample treatments while H2 determined that there was no significant gender difference in PIS. As PI is a combined measure of PIC and PIS, a further comparison of PI means was conducted to assess if differences in total reported involvement levels (i.e., PI) could explain these H5b results. As reported in Table 63, there was no significant difference in PI between genders of any sample. Support for H5b among only the social cause sample therefore reflects a more powerful PI*FIT interaction among women at sporting events that are affiliated with social causes. This finding is consistent with the rationale presented in relation to H1 and women's propensity to respond more intensely to emotional appeals (such as the Teddy Bear Toss event) and to display more demonstrative acts of social giving. This significant connection of women to social causes is an important

distinction and consideration in sponsors' selection of charitable partners. The impact of perceptions of sponsor-event FIT on sponsorship response is later addressed in the discussion of H8.

Table 63: Gender Comparison of Personal Involvement (PI)

Sample	Women's Personal Involvement (PI)			Men's Personal Involvement (PI)			Difference (Significance)
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	p (two-tailed)
All-Events	314	3.93	.65	319	3.86	.65	.07
Women's Hockey	121	4.03	64	76	4.00	.59	.78
Men's Hockey	193	.3.87	.66	243	3.82	.67	.44
Cancer-Causes	156	3.96	.70	101	3.98	.69	.82
Social-Causes	158	3.90	.61	218	3.81	.63	.16

PI* SINC (H6)

The interaction of personal involvement and perceived sincerity of the sponsor is next discussed (H6). Only two of the reviewed studies specifically considered this relationship. Speed and Thompson (2000) did not hypothesize interaction at this level but did report non-significant correlation between personal liking of an event and perceived sincerity of the event sponsor. Meenaghan (2001b) recognized the importance of sincerity in sponsorship and advocated that the "goodwill phenomenon" (Meenaghan, 2001b, p.100) is what ultimately differentiates sponsorship from advertising and is the impetus for favourable consumer response. Meenaghan

(2001b) proposed three levels of sponsorship goodwill: generic, category, and individual activity. Generic goodwill is the most distant and passive form of sincerity as consumers simply deem sponsorship to be generally positive. The next level of goodwill as explained by Meenaghan (2001b) is more relevant to consumers as sponsors are associated with categories (such as sport, art, festivals, causes, etc.) that are of personal interest. The individual activity level is where goodwill effects are most powerful according to Meenaghan (2001b); "…goodwill effects are most apparent, being driven by the intensity of consumer involvement with the activity" (p.102). According to this theory, partnering with properties that are relevant and deeply meaningful to a sponsor's targeted consumers will generate the greatest level of return. This principle is captured in this current study through the construct of personal involvement (PI). In the context of sport, Meenaghan (2001b) developed a triangular relationship framework for understanding the goodwill effect of fan involvement in sponsorship. In this presentation, the interaction among fans, sponsors and sport/activity is mediated by fan involvement with the activity, which generates "positive emotional orientation toward the sponsor who bestows benefit on the consumers' favored activity" (Meenaghan, 2001b, p.106). This triangular relationship (as developed by Meenaghan, 2001b) involves unidirectional relationships between all elements and is presented in Figure 8.

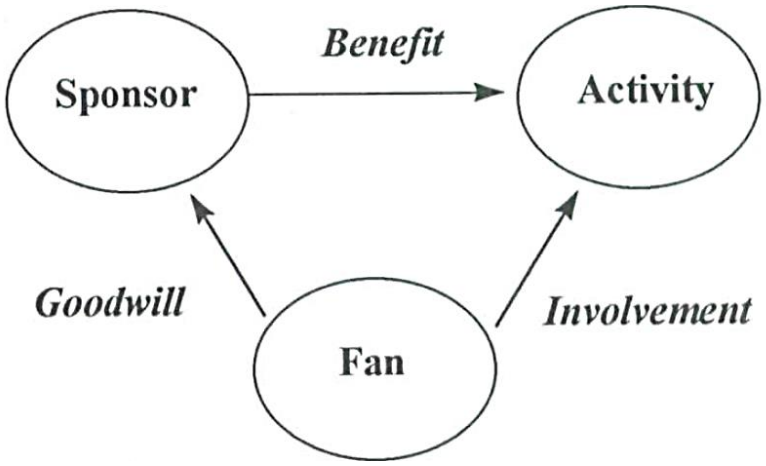

Figure 8: Goodwill Effects of Fan Involvement (Meenaghan, 2001b, p.106)

The conceptual relationship suggested by Meenaghan (2001b) was quantifiably verified in this current study. PI*SINC correlations were significant with all investigated samples (H6a). For the all-events sample, the relationship was positive and strong at r=.44. The social-causes (r=.48), event 3 (r=.51) and event 5 (r=.59) samples were among the strongest reported PI*SINC interactions. These events were also the most aggressively leveraged sponsorships (as detailed above) thereby suggesting that activities promoting the sponsor's involvement in cause-linked sporting events could strengthen the association between fans' PI and perceived SINC of the sponsor. Actual message content was not considered in this particular study however it is recommended that future research distinguish between the impact of sponsor-oriented versus charity-oriented messaging on perceived sincerity and sponsorship response.

The PI*SINC relationship was also tested for gender differences (H6b) and revealed the most significant and consistent distinctions of all verified relationships. The all-events, men's hockey, cancer-causes, and social causes samples all supported H6b, confirming that the PI*SINC effect was significantly stronger for women than for men. In cases where women feel a strong personal

connection with the event, their perceptions of sponsor sincerity are stronger than men's. In the case of CRSS relationships, involvement may be with the sport and/or the cause which extends the platform for potential consumer engagement. As will be later discussed, these perceptions of goodwill generate favourable consumer response. In Meenaghan's model (2001b) referenced above, the sponsor is shown to benefit the activity. As was confirmed in the sponsorship response findings of this study (and will be later discussed), the sponsored activity can also greatly benefit the sponsor.

In this current study of CRSS, Meenaghan's (2001b) triangular relationship evolved from sponsor, activity (sport), fan to also include cause affiliations. The interaction between involved stakeholders was amplified in this scenario as consumers' dual-involvement with both sport and cause expanded the potential for goodwill toward sponsors and shared benefits were broadened between the sponsor, charity/cause, and sport/event. As an extension to Meenaghan's (2001b) triangular relationship, Figure 9 presents the "Diamond of CRSS Goodwill" derived from this current study. The extended platform of engagement is represented by the diamond shape below that unites consumer, sponsor, sport, and charity. The direction of relationships (represented by arrows) is also modified in this conceptual representation of goodwill effects in CRSS scenarios. Whereas Meenaghan (2001b) indicated all unidirectional exchange (fan involved with activity; fan extends goodwill to sponsor; and sponsor benefits the activity), this expanded view recognizes mutual exchange and reciprocal return. Consumers' one-way involvement with sport and sentiments of goodwill (or perceived sincerity) are maintained as per Meenaghan's (2001b) original depiction. A new involvement relationship is introduced as consumers are also connected with an affiliated cause. Reciprocal exchange (depicted as two-way arrows) captures the interaction between sponsors and sports; sponsors and causes; and causes and sports.

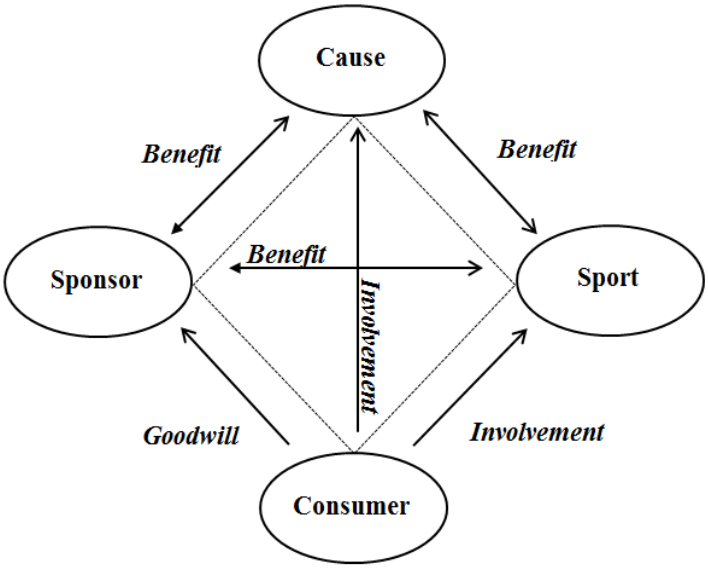

Figure 9: Goodwill Effects of CRSS – Current Study
("Diamond of Goodwill")

The earlier review of sport and cause sponsorship literature identified the numerous benefits of such partnerships. For sponsors of sport, benefits include strategic targeting of consumer segments, the opportunity to engage consumers in an emotional and receptive state, the generation of goodwill, brand awareness, favourable brand image and preference, and consumer response in terms of sales revenue (Chadwick & Thwaites, Copeland et al., 1996; Cornwell et al., 2005; McCarville & Copeland, 1994; McCook et al., 1997; Meenaghan, 2001b). The partnering sport property benefits mainly from funding and in-kind assistance as well event profiling and sport promotion (Davis, 2012; O'Reilly & Seguin, 2009). For sponsors of cause, the benefits are similar to sport (i.e., brand awareness, enhanced image, emotional engagement, goodwill and sales) with the added features of being able to display tangible acts of CSR and generating cause-linked publicity and meaningful differentiation from competing brands (Chang, 2012; Close & Lacey, 2013; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Irwin et al., 2003, Hajjat, 2003; Menon & Kahn, 2003; Meyer, 1999). For the affiliated causes, the benefits are mainly funding, awareness, cause

education and the recruitment of volunteers and donations (Bernardo, 2011; Cone LLC, 2010a; Doherty & Murray, 2007; Harvey & Strahilevitz, 2009; Taylor & Shank, 2008). The final exchange is among sports and causes. For sport organizations the benefits of cause-associations include enhanced image, new audience reach, and grassroots development of sport (King, 2001; Plewa & Quester, 2011; Walker & Kent, 2009). King (2001) referred to the NFL's Real Men Wear Pink campaign as an example of associating with a cause to reach a new (female) market and to improve a faulty brand/player image. Finally, sport can benefit cause (in similar ways as sponsors benefit causes) by extending mass audience reach, generating cause awareness and education, providing access to sponsors and incremental funding opportunities, offering an attractive outlet for corporations to promote their social goodness, and by linking charitable partners to emotionally charged sports fans (Neale et al., 2007; Smith & Westerbreek, 2007; Roy & Graeff, 2003; Walker & Kent, 2009; Watt, 2010). Table 64 summarizes these reciprocal exchanges among extended sponsorship partners.

Table 64: Reciprocal Exchange of CRSS

Sponsor Benefits Sport ⟷ **Sport Benefits Sponsor**	
-funds (or in-kind assistance) for sport and athlete development -event funding -profile / awareness of sport (Davis, 2012; O'Reilly & Seguin, 2009)	-strategic consumer targeting -emotional connection/ involvement of sport fans -generation of goodwill -brand awareness /broad audience reach -brand/company image -brand preference -consumer response /sales (Chadwick & Thwaites, Copeland et al., 1996; Cornwell et al., 2005; McCarville & Copeland, 1994;McCook et al., 1997; Meenaghan, 2001b)
Sponsor Benefits Cause ⟷ **Cause Benefits Sponsor**	
-funding /revenue -cause awareness -education -fundraising / donations -volunteer recruitment	-enhanced image -outlet to display CSR -positive brand attitudes -emotional engagement -positive publicity

(Bernardo, 2011; Cone, 2010a; Doherty & Murray, 2007; Harvey & Strahilevitz, 2009; Taylor & Shank, 2008)	-consumer goodwill / perceived sincerity -meaningful differentiation -consumer response / sales (Chang, 2012; Close & Lacey, 2013; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Irwin et al., 2003, Hajjat2003; Menon & Kahn, 2003; Meyer, 1999)
Cause Benefits Sport ⟷ **Sport Benefits Cause**	
-positive image -reach / new audience -community outreach -grassroots development and sport participation (King, 2001; Plewa & Quester, 2011; Walker & Kent, 2009)	-mass audience reach -cause awareness and education -access to sponsors -access to fundraising -outlet for corporations to display social goodness -emotional connection of sport fans (Neale et al., 2007; Smith & Westerbreek, 2007; Roy & Graeff, 2003; Walker & Kent, 2009; Watt, 2010)

Meenaghan et al. (2013) recently presented a broadened view of sponsorship that includes a multi-stakeholder relationship platform. Although charitable affiliates are not explicitly examined among this list of expanded stakeholders, these authors bring attention to a major development in the sponsorship industry. A more holistic approach to sponsorship is expanding organizational connections, objectives, and corresponding expectations of return. The Diamond of Goodwill is, therefore, an important reflection of these current industry dynamics. As sports and causes increasingly partner to deliver exponential return, there is a corresponding need to further the understanding of these relationships. The development of this framework is a substantial output of this dissertation and the foundation for future investigations.

PI* SR (H7)

H7 addresses the final PI interaction that was studied in this research, PI*SR. Following the approach of Speed and Thompson (2000) and Alay (2008), SR was measured in terms of INT, FAV and USE. This direct influence of PI on SR has been examined by the majority of

reviewed sponsorship effects studies. In fact, twenty-four of the thirty-seven reviewed studies considered the impact of PI*SR. Only one of these studies (Alay, 2008) did not confirm a direct relationship. In this case of female students in Turkey, PI was however determined to have an indirect effect on SR through FIT. All other reviewed studies confirmed a significant, direct relationship between PI*SR (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012; Bennett et al., 2009; Berger et al., 1999; Close et al., 2006; Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Donahay & Risenberger, 2007; Filo et al., 2010; Grohs & Reisinger, 2005; Grohs et al., 2004; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Gwinner et al., 2009; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Kinney et al., 2008; Ko et al., 2008; Ling & Owen, 2007; Madrigal, 2001; Maxwell & Lough, 2009; Meenaghan, 2001b; Pham, 1982; Speed & Thompson, 2000; Walker & Kent, 2009). These effects were noted at all three levels of the hierarchy of effects and are specified in the summary of sponsorship effects studies (Table 59). Of these studies, the vast majority (i.e., seventeen of twenty-four, 71%) involved sport sponsorship, two were cause-linked and four studies were based on CRSS. None of these studies were Canadian-based.

A summary of this study's findings pertaining to this relationship (PI*SR) are re-presented in Table 65 (all-events, women's hockey, and men's hockey samples) and in Table 66 (cancer-causes and social causes sample).

Table 65: Gender Comparisons of Correlation Results - PI*SR (INT/FAV/USE)

	All-Events			**Women's Hockey**			**Men's Hockey**		
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
PI*INT	0.42	0.44	0.37	0.29	0.30	0.24	0.45	0.52	0.38
PI*FAV	0.38	0.39	0.35	0.28	0.32	0.19 (n.s.)	0.40	0.43	0.37
PI*USE	0.37	0.36	0.37	0.24	0.28	0.10 (n.s.)	0.41	0.40	0.42

Table 66: Gender Comparisons of Correlation Results by Type of Cause Sample

	Cancer-Causes			Social-Causes		
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
PI*INT	.30	.37	.15 (n.s.)	.49	.53	.44
PI*FAV	.29	.36	.14 (n.s.)	.42	.43	.41
PI*USE	.24	.33	.07 (n.s.)	.45	.39	.48

This study joins the many published findings referenced above in supporting a direct and positive relationship between PI and SR at all levels of consumer effect (i.e., INT, FAV, and USE). This was the case when considering all grouped samples (without gender split). For the all-events sample, the correlation between PI*INT (lowest level of effect) was the strongest (r=.42) while FAV (r=.38) and USE (r=.37) were comparable. When considering the gendered hockey samples, stronger correlations were reported among the men's hockey sample than the women's hockey sample. Although still significant, there was a marked drop in the strength of all levels of correlation with respondents at these university pink-themed women's games. When contrasting correlations by type of cause both the cancer-cause and social cause samples also indicated significant correlations at all levels of response although the strength of these relationships were again strongest among respondents of social-cause events.

In order to determine if these observed correlation differences across grouped samples were significant, an additional level of analysis was performed for the purpose of this discussion. Correlation coefficients were compared by gender of hockey sample and by type of cause sample. These results are presented in Table 67. This assessment confirmed that PI*INT and PI*USE effects were both significantly stronger for the men's hockey sample (relative to the women's hockey sample) and for the social-causes sample (relative to the cancer-causes sample).

At the level of FAV, the differences in reported correlations were not significantly different between contrasted sample groups. The men's hockey sample was mainly made up of social-cause responses (over 86% of respondents) therefore it is reasonable that these sample treatments produced consistent results. These findings indicate that personal involvement levels expressed at men's hockey and social-cause events had the greatest impact on consumers' response to sponsorship and that these responses were most pronounced at the cognitive level of effect, followed by intended behaviour and then favourable feelings toward the sponsor. PI registered at cancer-cause events had a weaker impact on SR. As previously reported (H1), both genders indicated strong involvement with cancer causes (and men's PIC was significantly greater with cancer causes than with social causes). It was therefore interesting to discover that this strong expressed connection to cancer-causes had a diluted impact on sponsorship response. It is possible that this finding is explained by the saturation of pink efforts targeting consumers and the increased scrutiny of such efforts often viewed as pink-washing (King, 2006; Orenstein, 2003). There is a growing call to "think before you pink" (Twombly, 2004, p.1736) as Harvey and Strahilevitz (2009) warn that the "overuse of the pink ribbon could potentially lead to visual saturation, with a decline or loss of the emotional and intellectual response" (p.30).

Table 67: Comparison of PI*SR Correlations by Type of Hockey and Type of Cause

	Gender of Hockey Sampling			**Type of Cause Sampling**		
		Women's Hockey (n=200)	Men's Hockey (n=442)		Cancer-Causes (n=260)	Social Causes (n=382)
PI*INT	r	.29	.45	r	0.30	0.49
	Z(obs)	**-2.171**		Z(obs)	**-2.804**	
PI*FAV	r	.28	.40	r	0.29	0.42
	Z (obs)	-1.586		Z (obs)	-1.845	
PI*USE	r	0.24	0.41	r	0.24	0.45

	Z (obs)	**-2.225**	Z (obs)	**-2.969**

Table 68 summarizes a comparison of findings to similar sponsorship effect efforts. Of note, the results from this study are strong at all levels as are the other cause-associated studies (Close & Lacey, 2013; Filo et al., 2010; Walker & Kent, 2009). Alay (2008) and Speed and Thompson (2000) report the lightest observed PI*SR effects from their pure sport sponsorship investigations. Cause connections therefore may in fact amplify consumer response.

Table 68: Comparison of PI*SR (INT/FAV/USE) Correlation Findings

Study	PI*INT	PI*FAV	PI*USE
Current Study	*0.42*	*0.38*	*0.37*
Alay (2008)	0.15	0.18	0.09
Close & Lacey (2013)			0.32
Filo et al. (2010)	0.30		0.34
Ko et al. (2008)			.37 to .56
Speed & Thompson (2000)	0.19	0.18	0.17
Walker & Kent (2009)		0.51	0.56

H7b anticipated gender differences in the interaction of PI*SR whereby women would report a greater effect than men. This hypothesis was only supported at one level of response and with only one sample group. Women of the cancer-causes sample reported significantly stronger PI*USE than did men. This behavioural effect may be influenced by the widespread promotion of pink-ribbon products often targeted primarily to women. The correlation of PI*SR was not significant at any level of effect for men of this cancer-causes sample and correlations at the higher levels of effect (i.e., FAV and USE) were not significant for male spectators of women's hockey. There was a loss of connection for these male fans between personal involvement levels and direct sponsorship response. This finding may relate to the earlier discussion concerning the

saturation of pink-themed events and the corresponding dilution of consumer impact. As will be reviewed later, gender support may have also shaped these findings as men's support of women's sport is significantly less than women's and in this case, may not have served as sufficient motivation for sponsor support at these higher levels of effect. Observed PI*SR distinctions between genders of all other grouped samples (i.e., all events, women's hockey, men's hockey, and social causes) were not significantly different. In the reviewed literature, three studies found males' PI*SR to be greater than women's (Pham, 1992; Kinney et al., 2008; Bennett et al., 2009). Two were at the cognitive level (sponsor recall) and one was at the behavioural stage (purchase). These three studies however involved strongly male skewed sports (men's soccer, car racing, and action sports) with no cause associations. In line with current findings, two cause-linked studies also found women's PI levels to impact sponsorship response more strongly at the higher levels of effect (Berger et al., 1999; Hyllegard et al., 2011).

To visually summarize the PI relationships confirmed through this investigation, Figure 10 captures the significant paths of the total sample (i.e., women and men combined); Figure 11 illustrates women's PI relationships, and Figure 12 outlines men's PI paths in CRSS. As discussed, the main gender differences highlighted in this presentation is women's stronger PI*SINC connection as well as the direct impact of PI on the INT level of sponsorship response.

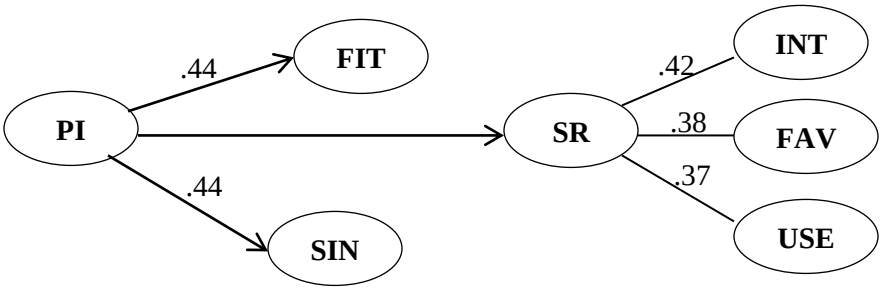

Figure 10: Effects of PI in CRSS (Total Sample)

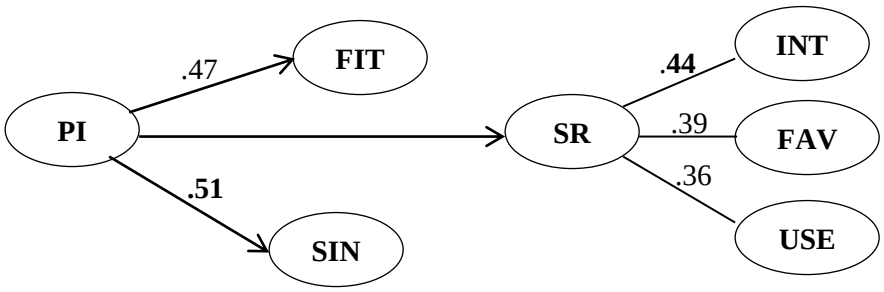

Figure 11: Effects of PI in CRSS (Women's Sample)

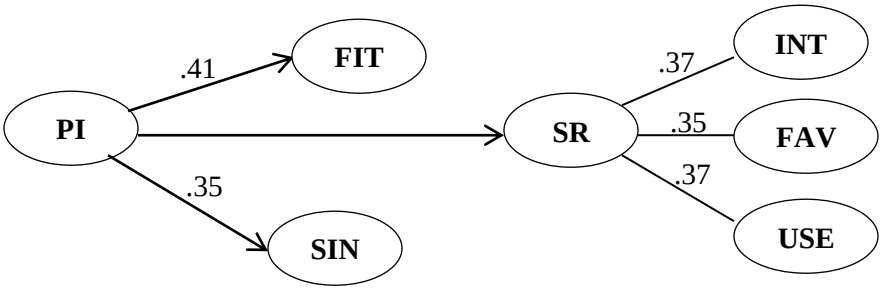

Figure 12: Effects of PI in CRSS (Men's Sample)

6.1.2 Gender Support in CRSS (H3, H4, H10)

Gender solidarity is defined by Fajak and Haslam (1998) as "an identification and unity amongst members of the same sex, expressed in a sense of community and mutual support regarding interests, feelings and reactions" (p.73). There is strong support for the proposition that women tend to unite more strongly based on gender than do men (Bruins et al., 1993; Fajak & Haslam, 1998; Lorenzi-Cioldi & Doise, 1991). The notion of gender support surfaced in the management, sport management, and cause literature reviews. In the context of entrepreneurship, the M2W Conference Group (2011) noted the support that women extend to their female counterparts, reporting that 79% of surveyed women will try a company's products/services if they believe that this organization supports women-owned businesses. Fajak and Haslam (1998) also found

some support of gender solidarity in their examination of gender identification and promotion in the workplace. In this study, there was evidence that in addition to considerations of fairness and qualifications, women first nominated other women (versus men) as most worthy of promotion. In advertising, Edwards and La Ferle (2009) made the case for gender-specific support reporting findings that women rated female celebrities as more trustworthy while men believed male endorsers to be more trustworthy. Specific to sport spectatorship, Funk et al. (2001) measured the motivation of attendance of spectators at the 1999 FIFA Women's World Cup and found that the desire to support women's opportunities (SWO) in sport was among the primary motives driving event attendance. SWO as part of Funk et al.'s (2001) Sports Interest Inventory is defined as: "the extent to which interest in the team is a reflection of support for women's sport in general (Funk, Ridinger, & Moorman, 2003, p.26). However, in this study, there was no distinction made between the responses of women and men. Ridinger and Funk (2006) did contrast gender response with respect to supporting both women's and men's opportunities and found that at men's basketball games, there was no significant gender difference in feelings of supporting male athletes in men's sports. At the women's games however, this study found that female spectators felt more strongly about the importance of supporting women's sports. Ridinger and Funk (2006) acknowledged the historical support of men's sport and suggested that women's support of women's sport may be a means of showing gender solidarity. Sack and Fried (2001) considered the idea of gender support from the sponsor's perspective reporting that some companies support women's tennis through sponsorship as an "ideological commitment to women's sports" (p.76). From a cause perspective, Broderick et al. (2012) found that women supported CRM campaigns benefiting breast cancer awareness as a gesture of solidarity and a means of 'doing something for the women out there" (p.596).

In terms of sponsorship effects, there were no existing studies found that included elements of gender support or solidarity as a possible determinant of sponsorship response. Given that the purpose of this dissertation was to identify any significant gender effects in the sponsorship process, it was deemed necessary to introduce gender support as a potential motivation of female consumer response and to initiate discussion around this topic. Gender support for women (GSW) was treated as a consumer factor and measured in terms of general support for women's sport and women's causes. Consideration for both sport and cause conforms to the characteristics of the investigated CRSS events. Similarly, gender support for men was measured in terms of general support for men's sport and men's causes. Responses to these variables were collected from both female and male research participants.

Based on the reviewed literature, gender solidarity was expected to be observed by both genders. In other words, the expectation of this study was that women would mostly support women (H3) and that men would mostly support men (H4). H3 was supported as results from this study did in fact confirm stronger GSW among female respondents (M=4.41) than male respondents (M=3.99). Significant differences in favour of women's stronger GSW were observed among the all-events, women's hockey, men's hockey, cancer-causes, social-causes, and four of the five individual event samples. Only Event #1 revealed non-significant GSW differences between genders. Consistent with the findings of Ridinger and Funk (2006), the magnitude of the difference between sentiments of GSW between genders was greatest among spectators of women's hockey. In this scenario, gender explained 13% of the variance in GSW versus 8% in the all-events sample. Women's support of their own gender was strongest at women's hockey games. This finding suggests that sponsors targeting female consumers may effectively leverage the passion of gender solidarity through association with female sports.

H4 anticipated similar results for men whereby gender solidarity would be ascertained through stronger expressions of support for men's sports and causes by men. This presumption was proven wrong. In fact, the opposite was revealed as women expressed significantly stronger support than men, not only for women's sports and causes but also for men's. For the all-events sample, women's GSM response (M=4.25) was significantly stronger than men's (M=4.02). This same conclusion was found for the women's hockey, men's hockey, cancer-causes, social-causes, and events 2, 4, and 5 samples. Event 3 results were consistent with the above trend but not significantly different between genders. Male respondents at Event 1 (NU-RMWP) actually indicated stronger support (M=4.26) for their own gender than did women (M=4.03) but this difference was not significant with this smaller sampled event. The review of relevant literature did not reveal any studies with similar results.

This new consideration for gender support established that women support both women (M=4.41) and men (M=4.25). Having said this however, women ultimately support women more than they do men. Women (of this study) indicated that they care most for their own gender. What remains unknown is whether these feelings of gender solidarity manifest into favourable sponsorship response and if this effect is stronger at women's CRSS events than at men's CRSS events. These were the issues explored in H10a and H10b. Focusing strictly on the female segment of respondents, the direct relationship between gender support for women and sponsorship response was investigated and confirmed as significant at all levels of response. H10a was therefore supported. Although not hypothesized in the current model, it is also worth noting that GSW also had an indirect impact on sponsorship response through significant correlations with all other predictive variables (i.e., PI, FIT, and SINC).

The final test regarding gender support was to determine if the gender of the sport being played impacted the strength of women's sponsorship response. H10b anticipated that gender solidarity would manifest more strongly at women's events and that this would result in more favourable sponsorship response than at men's events. A comparison of female responses between the women's hockey spectators and men's hockey spectators revealed no significant differences in sponsorship response based on the gender of sport being played. H10b was therefore not supported. While recorded GSW was stronger for women at female events, the corresponding impact on sponsorship response was not significantly different and therefore not dependent on the gender of sport being played.

Unlike other variables in the proposed model of this study (such as involvement, fit and sincerity), gender support was approached in a more exploratory fashion. An extensive review of sponsorship effects studies did not reveal any past efforts to integrate this concept into the testing of consumer response. Gender support /solidarity learning from related areas of sport management (and beyond) therefore guided the inclusion of this variable in the current study. Observations of differences between genders and the impact of gender support on sponsorship response are sufficient to engage further discussion on the importance of this consideration in the consumer processing of sponsorship programs. As hybrid forms of sponsorship continue to develop (such as sports and cause, festivals and sports, arts and causes, etc.), the potential basis of gender support also broadens. Sponsors therefore have increased opportunity to establish shared relevance and consumer engagement.

A diagram of the significant paths confirmed in this review of GSW is presented in Figure 13. PI, FIT and SINC are represented by dashed lines to denote that these relationships were not part of the original hypotheses of this study.

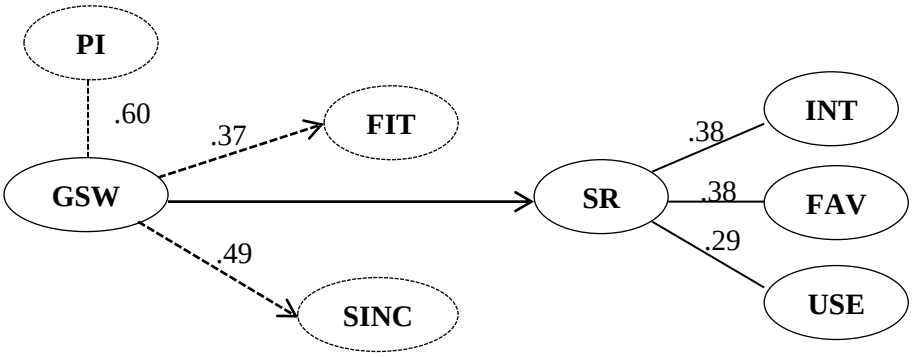

Figure 13: Effects of GSW in CRSS (Total Female Sample)

6.1.3 Sponsor-Event Fit in CRSS (H8)

The interaction of PI and sponsor-event fit was already discussed at length in section 6.1. The role of perceived sponsor-event fit in the sponsorship process is now addressed in terms of direct interaction with the outcomes of sponsorship. The testing of this relationship in sponsorship literature is well established. Fifteen of the thirty-seven reviewed studies (40.5%), considered the construct of fit. The majority (i.e., nine) of these studies involved sport (Speed & Thompson; Deane et al., 2003; Grohs et al., 2004; Grohs & Reisinger, 2005; Koo et al., 2006; Donahay & Risenberger, 2007; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Gwinner et al., 2009; Sozer & Vardar, 2009; Alay, 2008). Three studies considered the impact of fit in consumer cause association response (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Nan & Heo, 2007). Only one of these studies however involved CRSS (Close & Lacey, 2013). In all cases, fit was revealed as a significant predictor of sponsorship response at the levels of cognition, affection, and / or behaviour.

The current study lends further support to the significance of sponsor-event fit in realizing favourable CRSS response (H8). For all grouped samples, FIT had the strongest interaction at

the lowest order of effect, INT. This may imply that assessing sponsor-event fit is a more cerebral exercise that mainly resonates at the level of consumer cognition. In terms of the measures of this particular study, cognition refers to consumers' awareness of the sponsor and corresponding propensity to pay attention to this sponsor's future promotional efforts. FIT correlations with FAV and USE were both also significant and comparable to one another in strength. Results of this investigation are well aligned with past studies. Table 69 compares correlation coefficients for similar published measures. Results at the INT level are strongest in the current study while correlations at the higher orders of effect were noted in these other investigated cases. The interaction of FIT with FAV and USE was notably strongest in Alay's (2008) study of female students' evaluation of a female product's sponsorship of women's volleyball. Based on Alay's (2008) reported findings, the strength of this more natural (and perhaps obvious) fit moved respondents to higher levels of response. Furthermore, as previously expressed, activation efforts can also influence consumer response which may account for some of these observed variations across studies. For instance, purchase incentives can be tied to sponsorship programs which can prompt greater behavioural response.

Table 69: Comparison of FIT* SR (INT/FAV/USE) Correlations

Study	FIT*INT	FIT*FAV	FIT*USE
Current Study:			
All-events sample	.*53*	.*44*	.*45*
Women's hockey sample	.52	.43	.44
Men's hockey sample	.57	.48	.48
Cancer-causes sample	.51	.43	.46
Social-causes sample	.57	.47	.47
Alay (2008)	.45	.59	.56
Close & Lacey (2013)	-	-	.55
Speed & Thompson (2000)	.43	.48	.47

None of the fifteen reviewed studies that examined FIT *SR commented on gender differences. This current investigation was unique in this consideration as H8b expected the interaction of FIT*SR (INT/FAV/USE) to be stronger among women than men. This expectation did not materialize as there were no significant gender differences observed between the interactions of FIT with any of the levels of response across any of the grouped sample treatments. Consumer perceptions of sponsor-event fit directly impacted sponsorship response. This finding was equally as true for women as it was for men. Both women and men experienced the strongest effect of FIT at the cognitive level (i.e., INT) as confirmed with all investigated samples. The impact of FIT on FAV and USE was comparable for both genders. Gender comparison results are presented in Table 70.

Table 70: Gender Comparison of Correlation Results - FIT*SR (INT/FAV/USE)

	All-Events			**Women's Hockey**			**Men's Hockey**		
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
FIT*INT	0.53	0.52	0.54	0.52	0.52	0.49	0.57	0.54	0.58
FIT*FAV	0.44	0.45	0.42	0.43	0.44	0.36	0.48	0.49	0.46
FIT*USE	0.45	0.47	0.44	0.44	0.47	0.35	0.48	0.48	0.47
				Cancer-Causes			**Social-Causes**		
				Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
FIT*INT				.51	.51	.48	.57	.54	.58
FIT*FAV				.43	.42	.38	.48	.48	.46
FIT*USE				.46	.50	.36	.47	.45	.48

An additional observation in considering the type of hockey samples was that men's weakest correlations were from spectators of women's hockey. In this case, correlations between FIT and all three levels of response were still significant however perceptions of sponsor-event fit did not appear to be as motivating for men who attended women's hockey as it was for male spectators of men's hockey. A further level of analysis was conducted to test the statistical significance of

these observed differences in FIT*SR among men of the women's hockey versus men's hockey samples. Although these differences are worth noting (as discussed in the context of gender support), they were not found to be significantly different between these contrasted samples of male respondents. Results from this comparison of correlation coefficients are presented in Table 71.

Table 71: Comparison of Men's FIT*SR Correlations by Type of Hockey

Gender of Hockey Sampling (Male Respondents Only)			
		Women's Hockey (n=76)	Men's Hockey (n=243)
FIT*INT	r	.49	.58
	Z(obs)	-0.946 (n.s.)	
FIT*FAV	r	.36	.46
	Z (obs)	-0.901 (n.s.)	
FIT*USE	r	0.35	0.47
	Z (obs)	(n.s.)	

Findings pertaining to the construct of sponsor-event fit in this context of CRSS are consistent with past studies. No significant new gender findings were discovered in this inquiry. As detailed in the review of personal involvement, sponsorship activation is an important element in communicating fit to consumers. None of the examined events directly promoted gender-specific fit. It is reasonable to assume that a sponsor could alter the strength of the influence of fit on response for a particular gender with strategic effort to communicate some level of gender fit. As an example, a local spa could sponsor a new women's varsity basketball team in order to

generate awareness and trial for a new location near campus. They could activate this sponsorship by partnering with the student food bank and integrating a promotion that would reward food donations with a chance to win a spa package at the new location. Such a targeted campaign could feasibly strengthen the perceived fit with female spectators. The communicated call to action in this case could also strengthen the link between fit and behavioural response.

Diagrams of the significant paths confirmed through this review of FIT*SR are presented in Figure 14 (total sample), Figure 15 (women's sample) and Figure 16 (men's sample). Reflecting the discussion above, the correlations noted among the women's and men's samples are similar.

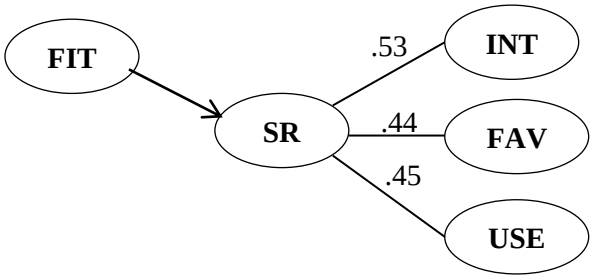

Figure 14: Effects of FIT in CRSS (Total Sample)

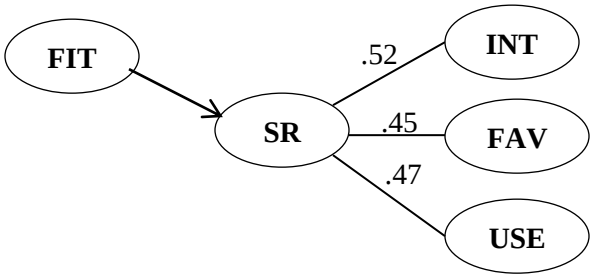

Figure 15: Effects of FIT in CRSS (Women's Sample)

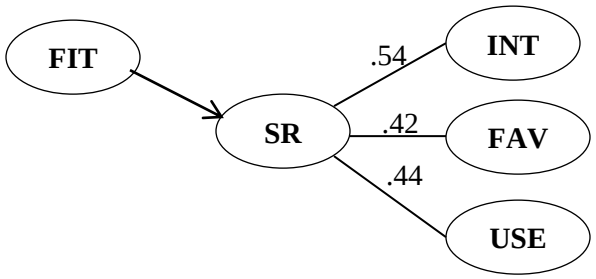

Figure 16: Effects of FIT in CRSS (Men's Sample)

6.1.4 Sincerity of the Sponsor in CRSS (H9)

Perceived sincerity of the sponsor and the goodwill phenomenon of sponsorship were also reviewed in the presentation of PI. As with the discussion of fit above, sincerity is next discussed in terms of its direct impact on sponsorship response. Of the reviewed studies, only Alay (2008) and Speed and Thompson (2000) directly measured the interaction of sincerity on sponsorship response (i.e., INT/FAV/USE). Both sport-based studies found support for this SINC*SR relationship at all three levels of effect. Close and Lacey (2013) more recently examined the effects of consumers' perceptions of the sponsor's actions of CSR on purchase intent. Similar items (helping the community, shared benefits, corporate giving) were measured and can be reasonably considered as an element of perceived sincerity for the purpose of comparing general findings. Close and Lacey (2013) reported very strong correlation between the sponsor's CSR and consumers' purchase intent (r=.77).

H9 expected to confirm this same SINC*SR dynamic in the context of CRSS. This hypothesis was strongly supported at all levels of effect and among all grouped samples. A strong link was confirmed between perceived sincerity of the sponsor and CRSS response. In comparison to past studies, the correlations recorded in this research were all stronger than Speed and Thompson's (2000) results and were greater than Alay's (2008) at the level of INT but weaker at the levels of

FAV and USE. Similar to the comparison of Alay's (2008) study in terms of the superior impact of FIT* SR, these SINC results may also be attributed to the strong natural fit between the event, sponsor, and sample. Close and Lacey's (2013) treatment of CSR was more direct in presenting respondents with a link to corporate good deeds. A CSR*USE (in this case measured only by purchase intent) correlation of r= .77 far exceeds any other published findings, perhaps indicating that an overt link to the sponsor's sincere charitable efforts generates more powerful response. Results of this current study are again in agreement with previously published findings. Table 72 below presents these comparisons of SINC*INT/FAV/USE.

Table 72: Comparison of SINC*SR (INT/FAV/USE) Correlations

Study	SINC*INT	SINC*FAV	SINC*USE
Current Study:			
All-events sample	.51	.48	.46
Women's hockey sample	.45	.44	.41
Men's hockey sample	.53	.48	.48
Cancer-causes sample	.48	.46	.43
Social-causes sample	.52	.48	.47
Alay (2008)	.45	.60	.59
Close & Lacey (2013) CSR*USE	-	-	.77
Speed & Thompson (2000)	.35	.37	.40

H9b expected the interaction of SINC*INT/FAV/USE to be greater for women than for men. Similar to FIT*SR, no significant gender differences were observed among the grouped samples, therefore, concluding that perceptions of sponsor sincerity effect the sponsorship response of both genders in similar manners. A review of published research did not reveal any studies that considered this same relationship and therefore a comparison to other findings in not feasible in this case. Although not fulfilling the required level of significance, it is interesting to note that the interaction of SINC*SR was strongest for men (of all sample treatments) at the level of INT

relative to the higher orders of effect (i.e., FAV and USE). For women, however, perceptions of sincerity appeared to have more similar effect across all levels of response (INT, FAV, and USE). This distinction between the specific levels of effect could be further explored in future studies to examine if women's perceptions of sincerity connect more on the emotional level while this effect with men may be most profound at the cognitive level. Good deeds may in fact connect more with the hearts of women and the minds of men. Gender comparison results are presented in Table 73.

Table 73: Gender Comparison of Correlation Results - SINC*SR (INT/FAV/USE)

	All-Events			**Women's Hockey**			**Men's Hockey**		
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
SINC*INT	0.51	0.48	0.53	0.45	0.42	0.51	0.53	0.51	0.53
SINC*FAV	0.48	0.49	0.47	0.44	0.44	0.44	0.48	0.50	0.46
SINC*USE	0.46	0.46	0.45	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.48	0.50	0.45
				Cancer-Causes			**Social-Causes**		
				Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
SINC*INT				.48	.47	.50	.52	.49	.52
SINC*FAV				.46	.48	.42	.48	.50	.45
SINC*USE				.43	.47	.35	.47	.47	.45

FIT*SINC

A final observation (although not hypothesized) regarding consumer perceptions of sponsorship is the strong interaction between the constructs of FIT and SINC. For the all-events sample, there was a FIT*SINC correlation of r= 0.52 indicating that these two variables overlap with a shared variance of 27%. In comparison, Speed and Thompson also reported significance but with weaker correlation (r=.40) in their sport study involving students. These results imply that when consumers perceive a strong fit between sponsor and event, they are less skeptical of the motives of the sponsors and willing to assume greater sincerity. This relationship can also stem

from perceptions of sincerity, as consumers who believe the sponsor to be genuine in their motives will make greater efforts to reconcile an acceptable level of fit between involved organizations.

Diagrams of the significant paths confirmed and discussed through this review of SINC*SR are presented in Figure 17 (total sample), Figure 18 (women's sample) and Figure 19 (men's sample). Reflecting the discussion above, the correlations noted among the women's and men's samples are again similar.

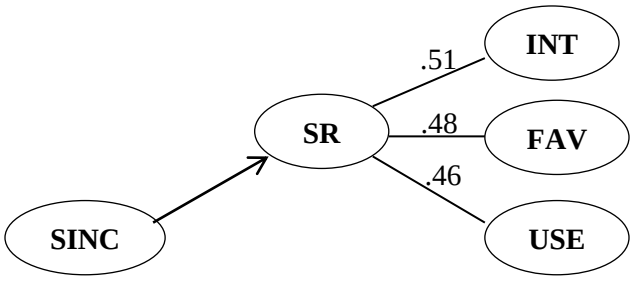

Figure 17: Effects of SINC in CRSS (Total Sample)

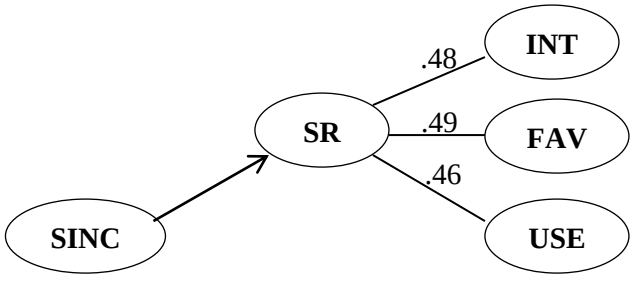

Figure 18: Effects of SINC in CRSS (Women's Sample)

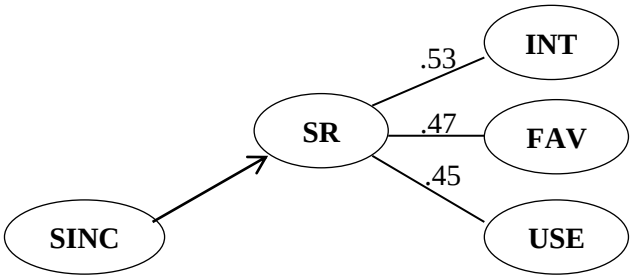

Figure 19: Effects of SINC in CRSS (Men's Sample)

6.1.5 CRSS Response (H11)

The preceding sections confirmed multiple consumer paths to reach favourable sponsorship outcomes. PI, GSW, FIT and SINC were all confirmed as significant predictors of sponsorship response at all three levels of effect (INT, FAV and USE). For all grouped samples, the strengths of correlations were greatest at the cognitive level of effect (i.e., INT). There was one noted exception among female respondents of the women's hockey sample. In this case, GSW had a greater impact with the affective level of response (i.e., FAV). Emotions associated with feeling of gender solidarity may have encouraged this particular outcome. For the hockey samples, strengths of correlations between PI, FIT, and SINC and the higher levels of response (i.e., FAV and USE) were similar. This was not the case however when contrasting the cause-type samples. For cancer-cause affiliated events, PI had a greater interaction with FAV (r=.29) than with USE (r=.24). The opposite was observed among social-cause respondents who indicated stronger effect between PI*USE (r=.45) than with PI*FAV (r=.42). Although these differences are slight, they do imply that cancer-CRSS may have the greatest emotional impact while social-CRSS may motivate a greater behavioural response in terms of intentions toward event sponsors. Consistent with previous discussions, all reported correlations were stronger with the social-cause sample than with the cancer-causes sample.

The construct of GSW also offered distinct results as there was a more notable dip in effect at the highest level of response (i.e., USE). This was true for female respondents of both the women's hockey and men's hockey samples. With the women's hockey group, GSW interacted with INT at r=.29, with FAV at r=.32 and dropped to r=.23 at the level of USE. For the men's hockey sample, measured correlations were all stronger but revealed a similar drop at the behavioural stage (GSW*INT=.42, GSW*FAV=.40, and GSW*USE=.34). These findings suggest that women's feelings of gender support interact most with women's minds and hearts but less so with behavioural intentions. This gap could conceivably be addressed through strategic sponsorship activation programs. Given that the notion of gender support as a predictor of sponsorship response was introduced in this current investigation, there were no known studies available to contribute in further explaining these results. This is an area recommended for future research.

It is also noted that the three levels of response were confirmed as highly correlated. It is therefore expected that a successful connection with consumers at any one level can effectively ignite response at the remaining levels of effect. Reported correlations between these levels of response (i.e., INT*FAV, INT*USE, FAV*USE) are well aligned with results published by Speed and Thompson (2000). Correlation results regarding these three levels of sponsorship response across grouped sample treatments are detailed in Table 74.

Table 74: Correlation Results of SR (INT/FAV/USE)

	All-Events			Women's Hockey			Men's Hockey		
	INT	**FAV**	**USE**	**INT**	**FAV**	**USE**	**INT**	**FAV**	**USE**
PI*	0.42	0.38	0.37	.29	.28	.24	.45	.40	.41
GSW*	0.38	0.38	0.29	.29	.32	.23	.42	.40	.34
FIT*	0.53	0.44	0.45	.52	.43	.44	.57	.48	.48
SINC*	0.51	0.48	0.46	.45	.44	.41	.53	.48	.48

INT* Current Study *(Speed &Thompson, 2000)*		0.72 *(0.69)*	0.70 (0.*72)*		.66	.65		.74	.71
FAV* *(Speed &Thompson, 2000)*			0.78 *(0.75)*			.72			.80
				Cancer-Causes			**Social-Causes**		
				INT	**FAV**	**USE**	**INT**	**FAV**	**USE**
PI*				.30	.29	.24	.49	.42	.45
GSW*				n/a	n/s	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
FIT*				.51	.43	.46	.57	.48	.47
SINC*				.48	.46	.43	.52	.48	.47
INT*					.67	.66		.75	.71
FAV*						.73			.80

A final direct relationship to sponsorship response was considered in this study. H11 expected women to respond more favourably to the investigated sponsorship efforts uniting sport and cause. Eight previous sponsorship effects studies considered this same Gender*SR relationship with mixed results. A study by Maxwell and Lough (2009) involving spectators of women's basketball revealed no significant difference in the response to sponsorship by women and men. Tobar (2006) also found that gender did not play a significant role in influencing purchase intentions of sponsors' products by television viewers of the Super Bowl. Kinney et al. (2008) reported that men were able to recall a larger number of NASCAR sponsors than women. Two other sport sponsorship studies reported similar cognitive effects between genders but more favourable attitudes and purchase intentions among women (McDaniel & Kinney, 1998; McDaniel, 1999). The three cause-related studies that considered the direct influence of gender on sponsorship response, all supported the view that women respond more favourably to such cause affiliated efforts (Ross et al., 1992; Hyllegard et al., 2011; Roy & Graeff, 2003).

Findings from the current study also produced mixed results in terms of support for H11. No significant gender differences were reported in terms of any level of sponsorship response among the all-events, women's hockey, cancer-causes, and events 1 to 4 samples. The social-cause sample however fully supported H11 with results indicating stronger sponsorship response by women at all levels of effect. These same significant results in favour of women's stronger response were also observed among the event 5 sample. In this case of the Sudbury Wolves Teddy Bear Toss, women expressed significantly stronger response at all three levels of effect. Reasons for women's significantly stronger sponsorship response (than men) among these two specific samples may include some of the earlier discussed points. The community need for gift giving to needy children during the emotional Christmas season (event 5), strong activation programs (social-causes and event 5), and recurring events with pre-established fan rapport (social causes and event 5) may have all collectively resonated stronger with women of these particular events.

As detailed in the results chapter (section 5.3.8) an additional level of analysis included randomly equalizing the gender samples to verify for any differences in reported significance. In all other cases, this procedure rendered the same outcomes. When conducting this analysis for the original men's hockey sample, t-test results for the INT variable were very close to significance (p=.09). Randomly equalizing the sample sizes of men and women (to n=193), did in this case nudge results within acceptable measures of significance. Women's mean INT score (M=3.83) reached a level of significant difference (p=.03) to men's (M=3.64). The magnitude of this difference however was quite small (eta squared=.01) and therefore these results are interpreted with some level of caution.

This discussion of results has thus far considered all of the hypothesized relationships between consumer factors (i.e., PI, gender, GSW, GSM), sponsorship factors (i.e., FIT and SINC), and sponsorship response (i.e., INT, FAV, USE). Next, these variables are brought together in the testing of the proposed model of consumer processing of CRSS.

6.1.6 Proposed Model of Consumer Processing of CRSS

The review of literature presented throughout this dissertation guided the development of a conceptual framework to capture an understanding of consumer processing of CRSS with a specific view to gender differences. The testing of hypotheses independently addressed each of these variables and relationships. The final step of this research was to assemble these potential predictors of sponsorship response in an effort to evaluate the interrelationships among them as well as the ability of this set of variables to predict sponsorship response. Whetten (1989) recommended that researchers "err in favour of including too many factors in the mapping of conceptual landscapes, recognizing that over time these ideas will be refined" (p.490). The proposed model was purposely comprehensive and included the following seven independent variables: i) gender, ii) PIC, iii) PIS, iv) GSW, v) GSM, vi) FIT, and vii) SINC. As explained in the results chapter, the two measures of personal involvement (i.e., PIC and PIS) were treated independently in this analysis in order to better distinguish between the relative strengths of these measures in predicting sponsorship outcomes. For the purpose of this analysis, the three measures of sponsorship response (INT, FAV, and USE) were also combined into one measure of sponsorship response (SR).

As detailed in the results chapter, multiple regression of the all-events sample revealed a significant model for which the independent variables explained 39.8% of the variance in SR. Of the independent variables included in this model, FIT (β=.278) and SINC (β=.271) made the

strongest unique contributions to SR while PIC (β=.186) also significantly contributed to the prediction of SR. Gender (β=.004), PIS (β=.009), GSW (β=.067) and GSM (β=-.016) did not make significant contributions. These results reaffirm the importance of FIT, SINC and PI in sponsorship response. While this knowledge is already well documented in the contexts of pure sport and pure cause settings, validation in the emerging area of CRSS is an important contribution of this research. The relative importance of each determinant of SR is also meaningful learning. In this model, FIT and SINC were essentially revealed as equally contributing to sponsorship outcomes while PIC (although still significant) delivered less of an impact on SR. Personal involvement was also examined from the aspect of both sport and cause in an effort to discern the relative power of each in influencing consumer behaviour. Results indicated that PIC was of greater significance than PIS despite sampling at sponsored events that were primarily sport-driven and secondarily cause-affiliated. Future research could further investigate the primary consumer driver (i.e., sport or cause) for different types of sponsored events. It would be particularly interesting to explore participant-based cause-related sport settings to assess if participation in such events (such as the CIBC Run for the Cure) is motivated primarily by the associated sport (such as a running) or by the affiliated cause (such as breast cancer). Such knowledge would assist sponsors in developing the most effective consumer messaging and activation programs.

The same model was run a second time with the data split by gender. Gender was therefore removed as an independent variable for this analysis while all other variables were maintained. The model was significant for both genders (p=.000), explaining 38.6% of SR variance for women and 39.3% for men. For women, the strongest unique predictor of SR was FIT (β=.288), followed closely by SINC (β=.269) and to a lesser extent (but still significant), PIC (β=.151).

Men's strongest predictors were the same three variables as women however SINC was the greatest (β=.285), followed by FIT (β=.254) and then PIC (β=.220). All other variables were not significant as unique contributors to SR. This gender comparison of the CRSS model revealed important similarities. The model fit equally well for both genders, the same three variables (i.e., FIT, SINC, and PIC) were identified as significant predictors of SR, and PIC was the weakest predictor of SR for both women and men. The main difference was the relative strength of these predictors as FIT had the greatest impact on women's response and SINC was the main predictor of men's response. These model results can be linked to the earlier testing of individual hypotheses. H8b and H9b expected women to have stronger FIT*SR and SINC*SR relationships than men. Both of these hypotheses were not supported as reported differences between genders were not found to be significant. Despite minor differences in these beta scores, these tested models produced comparable gender findings.

This dissertation was strongly guided by the work of Speed and Thompson (2000) and Alay (2008). Despite noted differences in sample characteristics, the proposed sponsorship model of this current study most closely follows the design of these earlier efforts. An advantage of collecting common measures and conducting similar analyses is the ability to compare results across key measures and effectively contextualize the findings of this particular study. Both previous studies treated the three levels of sponsorship response as separate dependent variables (INT, FAV, and USE). In order to conduct a thorough comparison, multiple regressions were re-run (with gender split data) three additional times for each of these dependent variables.

Table 75 describes the methods and designs of each of the relevant studies. Speed and Thompson (2000) relied on student participation at an Australian university to examine response to proposed sport sponsorships. The sample size in this study was 195. Alay (2008) also

sampled students but in this case the focus was on an all-female segment (n=412) from a Turkish university. Both the sport (women's volleyball) and sponsor in Alay's investigation were female-oriented. As a reminder, this current Canadian-based field study included an equal representation of male (n=319) and female (n-=314) spectators of five different charity-linked hockey events. These games included both women's and men's hockey.

Table 75: Comparison of Findings - Research Design

Year	Authors	Sample Size	Gender	Respondent Profile	Country	Sponsorship Setting
2000	Speed & Thompson	195	Female and Male	Students	Australia	-Classroom -Two possible sponsors and 2 possible events (sport)
2008	Alay	412	Female Only	Students aware of event	Turkey	-Classroom -Women's Volleyball Championships (sport) -Sanitary towel sponsor (heavy female skew) - 3 months post-event
Current Study		642	Female and Male	Spectators in attendance at five different charity-linked hockey events	Canada	-Event-intercepts prior, during and post events -Five different charity-linked hockey games (sport + cause) -Four different charity/cause affiliations

Speed and Thompson (2000) included the following six independent variables in their model: attitude toward the sponsor, sponsor-event fit, personal liking of event, perceived ubiquity, event status, and perceived sincerity. Alay (2008) included the same six variables as Speed and Thompson (2000) and added the following two additional independent variables in her model: attitude toward the event, and image of the sponsor. The overlap between these three compared models involves the three variables of fit, sincerity and personal involvement/personal liking (PL). The observed similarities and differences are discussed by dependent variable.

At the INT level, the strengths of the tested models were all within a similar range. Speed and Thompson (2000) reported the lowest fit (27%) and the current study had the strongest fitting models for both women (37.5%) and for men (40.4%). Alay's (2008) model fit was 30.7%. In all three studies, FIT and SINC were revealed as significant predictors of INT. The beta values for FIT were the same (β=.30) in Speed and Thompson's (2000) model as well as both the women and men's models of the current study. For Alay (2008), FIT made a significant unique contribution to INT but to a much lesser extend (β=.17) than in the contrasted models. The significant contribution of SINC on INT was recorded in all models. This was the strongest predictor of INT in Alay's (2008) study (β=.22). In the current study, SINC was a stronger predictor of INT in the men's model (β=.28) than in the women's model (β=.19). For Speed and Thompson (2000), SINC was also a significant predictor of INT (β=.24) at levels similar to Alay (2008). The greatest observed difference between models at the response level of INT was the influence of personal involvement. Only the current study confirmed personal involvement as a significant contributor to INT. In this case (and at both subsequent levels), PIC was recognized as uniquely contributing to consumer response. At this level, the influence of PIC was stronger for women (β=.21) than for men (β=.19). The other models did not find PL to significantly contribute to this outcome of INT. PIS did not uniquely contribute to any level of sponsorship response. Comparative results for the response level of INT are presented in Table 76.

Table 76: Comparison of Models – Sponsor Interest

	Speed &Thompson (2000) Model Fit= 27%			Alay (2008) Model Fit=30.7%			Current Study Women's Model Fit=37.5% Men's Model Fit=40.4%		
Variable	Beta	T	p	Beta	T	p	Beta	T	p
FIT	0.30	8.28	0.00	0.168	3.008	0.003	W: .299 M: .301	W: 5.445 M: 5.482	W: .000 M: .000

SINC	0.24	6.51	0.00	0.222	3.840	0.000	W: .186 M: .281	W: 3.156 M: 4.804	W: .002 M: .000
Personal Liking	0.08	-0.06	0.96	-0.09	-1.696	0.091			
PIC							W: .213 M: .190	W: 3.547 M: 3.489	W: .000 M: .001
PIS							W: .019 M: .009	W: .362 M: .177	W: .718 M: .859

At the next level of effect (i.e., FAV) the strongest fitting model was Alay's (2008) with R^2= 47.2%. Speed & Thompson's (2000) model (31% fit) and the women's model (31.7% fit) of the current study had comparable model fits while the men's model was the weakest fit (29.1%), though very close to the other reported fit measures. In terms of similarities, all three studies again confirmed the unique predictive influence of FIT and SINC on FAV. Speed and Thompson (2000) reported the strongest beta value for fit (β=.33), followed by Alay (2008) with β=.29. Although still significant, FIT in the current study did not have as strong an influence on the outcome of FAV for either women (β=.22) or men (β=.17). In fact, the level of FAV marked the lowest contributions of FIT of the three levels in this current study. SINC was the strongest unique predictor in both Alay's (β=.35) and the current study's models (women's model β=.26; men's model β=.29). For Speed and Thompson (2000) SINC uniquely contributed less to FAV than in the other reviewed models. Personal involvement is again the main differentiator between models at this level of FAV. While not significant in the contrasted models, PIC made a significantly unique contribution to FAV for both women (β=.13) and particularly for men (β=.20) of this study. Comparative results for the response level of FAV are presented in

Table **77**.

Table 77: Comparison of Models – Sponsor Favourability

	Speed & Thompson (2000) Model Fit=31%			Alay (2010) Model Fit=47.2%			Current Study Women's Model Fit=31.7% Men's Model Fit=29.1%		
Variable	Beta	T	p	Beta	T	p	Beta	T	**p**
FIT	0.33	9.41	0.00	0.289	5.944	0.00	W: .219 M: .174	W: 3.816 M: 2.900	W: .000 M: .004
SINC	0.22	6.19	0.00	0.347	6.871	0.00	W: .261 M: .285	W: 4.235 M: 4.414	W: .000 M: .000
Personal Liking	0.05	1.28	0.20	-0.100	-2.162	0.03			
PIC							W: .134 M: .197	W: 2.134 M: 3.321	W: .034 M: .001
PIS							W: -.002 M: .033	W: -.038 M: .625	W: .970 M: .532

At the final level of effect, Alay's (2008) model fit best (46.1%). The remaining models were all very similar in their abilities to explain the variance in USE (32% for Speed & Thompson, 2000; 30.5% for current study's women model; and 29.7% for men's model). As with both INT and FAV, FIT continued to be the strongest predictor of the dependent variable for Speed and Thompson (2000). SINC on the other hand remained the strongest unique predictor of outcomes for Alay (2008). In the current study's models, women's USE was most strongly impacted by FIT (β=.28) while SINC (β= .23) was the strongest unique contributor to men's USE. Only at the level of USE, did measures of personal involvement become significant in the compared models. The effects on USE are not as strong as the other reviewed variable but PL was confirmed as significantly contributing to USE for both Speed and Thompson (β=10) and negatively contributing to USE for Alay (β=-.18). Unlike Speed and Thompson (2000), Alay (2008) found that consumers' dislike for an event could be overcome through strong FIT and SINC and still result in favourable USE. PIC remained a significant contributor in both the

women's (β=.15) and the men's models (β=.22). Comparative results for the response level of USE are presented in Table 78.

Table 78: Comparison of Models – Sponsor Use

	Speed & Thompson (2000) Model Fit=32%			Alay (2008) Model Fit=46.1%			Current Study Women's Model Fit=30.5% Men's Model Fit=29.7%		
Variable	Beta	T	p	Beta	T	p	Beta	T	p
FIT	0.32	9.24	0.00	0.28	5.703	0.00	W: .282 M:.192	W: 4.877 M: 3.212	W: .000 M: .001
SINC	0.25	7.08	0.00	0.344	6.748	0.00	W: .264 M: .227	W: 4.249 M: 3.567	W: .000 M: .000
Personal Liking	0.10	2.37	0.02	-0.183	-3.922	0.00			
PIC							W: .152 M: .217	W: 2.393 M: 3.672	W: .017 M: .000
PIS							W: -.013 M: .033	W: -.239 M: .637	W: .811 M: .524

This detailed comparison of models is valuable in situating current research findings. Speed and Thompson (2000) developed the original model. With a student sample, these researchers established an important framework and range of findings upon which future studies could compare. For Speed and Thompson (2000), FIT was the most significant predictor of all levels of response, with published beta values tightly ranging from β= .30 to .33. This seminal study also acknowledged SINC as a primary determinant of sponsorship response. The range of SINC beta measures were lower than for FIT (β= .22 to .25). PL for Speed and Thompson (2000) was only significant at the USE level and was acknowledged as a weaker (but significant) predictor of response.

Alay's (2008) follow-up study was important in bringing attention to female consumers' response to sponsorship. This work contributed new learning, highlighting that SINC in this all-

female investigation took precedence over FIT in predicting all levels of sponsorship outcomes. Alay's (2008) SINC measures were stronger, ranging from β= .22 to .35.

The current study further extends the understanding of sponsorship response by building on the knowledge offered through these earlier efforts. This study is similar to Speed and Thompson (2000) in supporting the principal importance of FIT at the INT level. The reported beta values (β= .30) at this level are identical between these two studies. Current findings also align well with Alay (2008) at the FAV level where SINC was identified as the most significant predictor of FAV in both the women and men's models. At the level of USE, the women's model of this study is most reflective of Speed and Thompson's (2000) finding that FIT is again the strongest predictor of USE. The male model at this stage supports Alay's (2008) reports of SINC as the strongest influence on USE.

While findings of FIT and SINC align well with these past studies, this dissertation also offers new and valuable learning of the sponsorship process. The important role of personal involvement at all three levels of effect was established in this study of the emerging area of CRSS. As cause affiliations seep into traditional types of sponsorship, it is expected that involvement will play an increasingly complex and important role in consumer response to sponsorship. A review of literature established that involvement is more than merely liking an event. There is a need to capture a deeper understanding of consumer connections and motivations of response. Findings from this study suggest that gender support may serve as such motivation.

In the absence of any similar efforts, gender support was introduced into the sponsorship process in an attempt to establish significance and encourage further dialogue concerning this variable.

Sentiments of gender solidarity were discovered (in earlier hypotheses findings) and are indeed worthy of future research attention. The potential influence of gender at all stages of the presented sponsorship process in an important contribution of this research. The following section will reflect on all reported findings to answer the question of whether gender matters in the investigation of CRSS effects.

6.1.7 Does Gender Matter in CRSS?

Many efforts are made to identify differences between genders. In the reviewed literature gender differences were highlighted with regards to physicality, information processing, decision-making, priorities and interests, sport consumption, charitable giving and gender support. The original intent of this inquiry was to follow these tendencies of distinguishing genders through differences. The findings from this research suggest that in the context of CRSS, women and men may be more similar than they are different. Understanding not only points of difference but also shared likeliness can assist marketers in developing the most effective strategies to engage multiple target markets. The answer to the underlining question of whether gender matters in CRSS is addressed by distinguishing between the significant differences and similarities revealed through the discussion of hypothesized relationships of CRSS. Table 79 summarizes these findings.

Table 79: Summary of Gender Differences and Similarities

Gender Differences	Gender Similarities
Women indicated similar PIC with both cancer and social causes. Men indicated greater PIC with cancer causes than social causes. Women expressed stronger personal involvement with social causes than did men. (H1) *However…* →	…men also care about community causes. Involvement with pink-themed cancer related events was similar between genders.

…women may be more motivated by the social aspect of the game.	Men and women reported similar involvement with the sport of hockey. (H2) *However…* ←
…at social-cause linked sporting events, PI*FIT was greater for women.	Personal involvement had an equally positive interaction with event-sponsor FIT for both genders of the all-events, women's hockey, men's hockey and cancer-cause samples. (H5b) *However…* ←
Women's personal connection to an event (sport and/or cause) had a stronger influence on perceptions of sponsor sincerity. (H6b) *However…* →	…at women's hockey events, there was no significant gender difference in the relationship between PI and SINC.
…women of the cancer-causes sample, reported stronger PI*USE than did men. ...at women's hockey games, men's PI did not impact the higher orders of effect (FAV and USE).	The direct influence of personal involvement on sponsorship response was equally significant for both genders. (H7b) *However…* ←
Women's support of women was stronger than men's support of women and was most strongly expressed at women's sporting events. (H3) *However…* →	…men do support women (just not as much as women support women).
Women's support of men was stronger than men's support of men. (H3) *However…* →	…men do support men (just not as much as women support men).
	The positive influence of sponsor-event fit on consumer response was similar for both women and men. (H8b)

…FIT did not motivate men's response as strongly at women's hockey games as at men's games.	← *However…*
…the impact of sincerity was strongest at the lower orders of effect (INT, FAV) for men and at the higher levels of effect for women (FAV, USE).	For both women and men, sincerity of the sponsor was an important determinant of sponsorship response. (H9b and model test) ← *However…*
…noted gender differences did mediate sponsorship response of both women and men. …women of the social-causes sample responded more favourably to all levels of sponsorship response.	For most samples gender was not a significant direct predictor of sponsorship response. Mere gender did not determine sponsorship response. (H11) ← *However…*
…women's interest in the sponsor was more influenced by their personal involvement with the cause while men's interest levels were more influenced by perceptions of sincerity.	Sponsorship interest (INT) was most strongly predicted by perceptions of sponsor-event fit for both women and men. (model test) ← However…
…women's favourability toward the sponsor was more influenced by fit while men's favourability was more greatly impacted by personal involvement with the cause.	Sponsor sincerity was the strongest predictor of favourability (FAV) for both women and men. (model test) ← However…
Women's intended use of the sponsors' offerings was most influenced by fit, followed closely by perceptions of sponsor sincerity. Men's intended use was predicted mainly by perceived sincerity followed closely by their personal involvement with the affiliated cause. Fit was less significant for men at the highest order of effect.	

With regards to the construct of involvement, Table 79 highlights women's greater expressed involvement with social causes while also acknowledging the support conveyed by men. The similarity in terms of involvement with pink-themed events was also revealed as an interesting connection between genders. Regarding PIS, women and men were found to have similar involvement levels with the sport of hockey. Although not significantly confirmed or purposefully addressed in this investigation, there was some indication that women may be more motivated by the social aspect of the sport than are men.

Involvement is clearly an important construct in consumer processing of sponsorships. This variable has a direct and positive interaction with FIT, SINC and all levels of sponsorship response. Based on the findings of this study, this is generally the case for both women and men. A few notable differences however were discovered through this research. At social-cause affiliated events, women's PI had a greater impact on perceptions of sponsor-event fit. Women of the cancer-causes sample also reported stronger interaction of PI*USE. The most consistent gender difference observed across samples was women's greater PI*SINC scores. When women are connected to a sponsored event, they are more likely to perceive the sponsor as being sincere in their motives to contribute to the event and affiliated causes. It was also discovered that men's involvement levels did not significantly impact the higher orders of effect (FAV and USE) at women's hockey games. This observation, as previously discussed, may suggest that men remain most influenced at men's sporting events while women's responses are less dependent on the gender of sport being played.

Although men reported strong support for both genders, women's expressed support for both women and men was significantly stronger. Women's feelings of gender solidarity surfaced

strongest at women's hockey games (versus men's games). Sponsors seeking to connect with women's passion for gender solidarity could therefore promote affiliations with women's events. Further analysis revealed that although these sentiments of gender solidarity were greatest at women's events, the corresponding impact on sponsorship response was similar at both women's and men's games. Women's feelings of support and corresponding response to sponsors are therefore not restricted to female-only events. This finding broadens sponsorship opportunities for organizations targeting female consumers.

For both genders, perceptions of fit were significant in predicting sponsorship response however the strength of this influence was diluted for men when attending women's games. This finding supports the earlier proposition that men's sporting events may continue to be the best venues for specifically targeting male consumer segments.

Similar to fit, both genders reported strong correlation between perceived sincerity and favourable sponsorship response. This impact however was strongest at the lower orders of effect for men (INT, FAV) and at the higher levels (FAV, USE) for women.

Gender in isolation of other mediating variables, was not a significant predictor of consumer response for all, but one investigated sample. For the social-causes group, women's response at all levels of effect was significantly greater than men's.

When comparing the interaction of all combined variables on sponsorship response, further similarities and differences were confirmed at the three levels of response. For interest, fit was the strongest predictor of response for both women and men. Women however were more influenced by personal involvement at this level while men's perceived sincerity was of greater significance. At the level of favourability, sincerity of the sponsor was the strongest predictor of

response for both genders. At this level, fit was of greater importance to women, while personal involvement with the cause was more meaningful for men. At the highest level of effect, further differences between the modeled behaviour of women and men were observed. Women's intended use of the sponsors' offerings was most influenced by fit, followed closely by perceptions of sincerity. Conversely, men's use was most predicted by their perceptions of sponsor sincerity followed closely by their personal involvement with the affiliated cause. Fit was less significant for men at this highest level of effect.

When scrutinizing consumer response by the levels of effect, there is strong overlap between the priorities of genders and their corresponding response. Fit, sincerity and personal involvement are all important to both genders at all various levels of response. The only difference is the magnitude of the influence on specific levels of effect. Promoting any one of these variables will resonate with both women and men. For instance, while promoting fit may have greater impact on women's use, it is not expected to alienate men in any way. Rather, such a message would also favourably influence men. This same rationale can be reasonably applied to any of these three variables of fit, sincerity, and personal involvement.

This section focused on both the differences and similarities of women and men identified in this investigation of CRSS. Understanding differences allows marketers to be effective in developing strategies that best resonate with multi-targeted consumers. Recognizing similarities, however, also allows marketers to be more efficient by combining segments with common needs and behaviours (Perreault et al., 2007). Based on the examined findings of this study, the impact of gender is highly contextual and is reflective of complex relationships that are not only based on difference, but also on equally significant similarities between genders. So, does gender matter in CRSS? Yes and no.

6.2 Contributions

Whetten (1989) proposed that there are seven main factors in assessing theoretical contributions. These (posed as questions) include: i) what's new? ii) so what? iii) why so? iv) well done? v) done well? vi) why now? and vii) who cares? The contributions of this dissertation are presented in accordance with these factors.

6.2.1 What's New?

This dissertation contributes new and value-added insights to the current understanding of sponsorship in four principle ways. These include: i) the focus on CRSS and the expanded platform of reciprocal exchange that this form of sponsorship entails, ii) a more rigorous understanding of personal involvement as a determinant of sponsorship response, iii) the addition of gender support as a new variable in understanding consumer behaviour in sponsorship marketing, and iv) the testing of sponsorship effects from a gendered lens.

The merging of sport and cause is a new and growing reality of the sponsorship industry. Focusing on this hybrid form of sponsorship revealed a broader portrayal of the reciprocal relationships among multiple partners of sport and cause. The *Diamond of CRSS Goodwill* is an important conceptual contribution that was not initially planned but rather developed through the integration of literature and primary data gathered through this research. This framework serves as a foundation for further inquiry and development.

The layering of cause with sport demanded a more robust treatment of the construct of personal involvement. Earlier concepts of personal liking were broadened in this investigation to capture consumer connections with elements of both sport and cause. This approach revealed interesting insights concerning differences but also similarities between the involvement levels of women

and men. The disparity between genders regarding cause connections was much less than originally presumed. Grouping individual event samples by both types of hockey (i.e., women's hockey versus men's hockey samples) and by type of affiliated cause (i.e., cancer causes versus social causes) also revealed intriguing outcomes. These included women's greater involvement and interaction with social (versus cancer) causes and the diluted impact among men at women's (versus men's) hockey events. The likeliness of men and women regarding pink-themed sporting events and the suggestion of pink saturation are particularly relevant in terms of managerial implications. Women and men's common involvement with the sport of hockey serves as notice that sponsorship properties should no longer be restricted to gender-tied lines.

The inclusion of gender support as a potential influence on sponsorship response is another significant contribution of this dissertation. As earlier established, notions of gender support and solidarity were adjusted from varied fields in order to explore how this construct may interact in the sponsorship process. These preliminary observations of the influence of gender support throughout the sponsorship process are hoped to initiate further scholarly discourse and research attention. The scrutiny placed on gender differences for each investigated relationship is another significant contribution of this dissertation. Important differences were identified and equally important similarities were revealed. These were summarized (in Table 79) and fully discussed in section 6.1.7.

6.2.2 So What?

These contributions extend the current understanding of sponsorship effects. The focus on CRSS, the expanded view of PI, the addition of gender support as an influence in sponsorship response, and the discovery of both gender differences and similarities "push back the boundaries of (sponsorship) knowledge by providing compelling and logical justification for

altered views (Whetten, 1989, p.470). The comparison of grouped samples by type of hockey and type of cause revealed interesting learning from the view of both sport and cause (as noted above). Distinguishing effects between types of causes is a particularly valuable perspective to contribute to the sponsorship literature given the growth of cause and cause-affiliated sponsorships. These findings alter the current understanding and potential practice of sponsorship.

6.2.3 Why So?

Evidence gathered from a large sample of consumers, combined with a rigorous comparison of past studies, lends credibility to the findings of this research. By comparing results to thirty-seven sponsorship effects studies published over the past two decades (i.e., 1992-2013) and spanning multiple domains (i.e., sport, cause, CRSS), the findings of this research are presented with a thorough and evolving understanding of sponsorship that effectively discerns the unique contributions of this work. The evidence and logic presented in this dissertation are intended to direct future research that will further scrutinize these propositions, extend findings, and advance theory development (Sutton & Staw, 1995).

6.2.4 Well Done?

The design of this study was guided by past efforts with shared purpose. Specifically, this research extended the seminal work of Speed and Thompson (2000) that developed a framework of the determinants of sports sponsorship response. Alay's (2008) follow-up study was also influential as it placed much needed attention on female sponsorship response. Prior to Alay's (2008) work, women's response to sponsorship (and even the sponsorship of women's sports), was generally overlooked. Hypotheses stemmed from a broad and recent understanding of

sponsorship marketing. Several findings from this study supported published research conclusions thereby validating the applicability of these relationships in cause-linked sport settings. These confirmations included: women's stronger expressed involvement with charities/causes, the direct and indirect (via fit and sincerity) influence of personal involvement, sponsor-event fit, and perceived sincerity of the sponsor on sponsorship response, and the recognition of sponsorship's potential impact at all levels of the hierarchy of effects. Samples were grouped and compared on multiple levels of inquiry. As with any research, there were limitations in the methods used in this study. These are acknowledged (in the following section) and provide sound direction for future research.

6.2.5 Done Well?

Whetten (1989) describes "done well" as work that is "well written with logical flow, central ideas that are easily accessible, comprehensive content, and appearance that reflects high professional standards" (p.494). This dissertation is the result of input and direction from a variety of seasoned scholars, several rounds of improved revisions, and much learning. The review of literature considers close to three-hundred sources across multiple disciplinary fields in order to establish, integrate, and build upon the most recent scholarly knowledge. The analysis of results includes multiple relationships across various sample treatments that generated a vast amount of findings. In order to effectively present such information, summary tables and figures are presented throughout this document with thorough consideration and discussion for all principle findings.

6.2.6 Why Now?

Sponsorship has evolved to become an integral part of the marketing mix. Global sponsorship spending is projected to exceed $55 billion in 2014 (IEG, 2014). Understanding the intricacies of sponsorship marketing has therefore become increasingly important to both practitioners and scholars. A review of sponsorship research verified the need for further examination of consumer response to sponsorship (Gwinner et al., 2009; Koo et al., 2006; McDaniel, 1999; Speed & Thompsons, 2000). Greater understanding of women's role in the sponsorship process was also highlighted in the reviewed literature (Alay, 2008; Dodds et al., 2014; McDaniel & Kinney, 1998; McDaniel, 1999; Sack & Fried, 2001; Shani et al., 1992; Shaw & Amis, 2001). More recently, the merging of sponsorship types (such as sport and cause) and stakeholders has been identified as an area ripe for new discovery (Lough & Irwin, 2001; Meenaghan et al., 2013; Pegoraro et al., 2009). Field-based data has also been encouraged (Close & Lacey, 2013; Gwinner et al., 2009) and Bush et al. (2007) suggested that samples be extended to the Canadian market. The above stated needs were addressed through this dissertation. The focus of inquiry was consumer response to sponsorship; data was collected from both women and men allowing for important gender comparisons; the selection of charity-linked sporting events (both women's and men's) offered new insights into the merging of sport and cause sponsorships; and data was collected through field surveys across three Ontario cities.

6.2.7 Who Cares?

An interdisciplinary approach was followed in the development, implementation, and analysis of this research. Connecting insights assists in addressing questions that transcend disciplinary boundaries (Newell, 1992). Understanding the influences, relationships, and effects of CRSS on consumer response is an inquiry that relies on integrated insights across multiple fields of study.

Marketing, gender behaviour, and sport management (including sponsorship), are all fields that are inherently interdisciplinary (Beetles & Harris, 2005; Bettany et al., 2010; Bell & Blakey, 2010; Cornwell et al., 2005; Mason, 2005; Repko, 2012). The synthesis of literature from these various fields guided the development of the framework for consumer processing of CRSS that was tested through this study. Findings from this research are useful to multiple stakeholders including scholars across various disciplines, corporate sponsors, sport properties, and charitable organizations. This learning could also be extended to other forms of sponsorship such as arts, entertainment, festivals, etc.

New understandings of sponsorship marketing are, therefore, of interest to both scholars and practitioners. The growth of sponsorship research and funding, as well as, gaps in current knowledge have been cited throughout this dissertation. The significance of these findings in terms of conceptual and theoretical contributions was noted in the 'what's new' section above. Practical implications are discussed next.

6.3 Implications

Based on the findings of this research, several practical suggestions are proposed. These are presented in terms of marketing to women through CRSS, marketing to men through CRSS, and general sponsorship recommendations.

Marketing to Women through CRSS

Sponsor-event fit was the strongest predictor of women's response to sponsorship. In order to establish acceptable perceived fit, sponsors must first align with congruent partners. Congruency (as previously reviewed) can be based on several factors including functional or image-based fit. This fit should be clearly articulated to consumers through aggressive sponsorship activation

programs. Given women's significantly higher involvement with social causes, sponsors should seek such affiliations when targeting a female audience and ensure that these partnerships are sufficiently promoted. All sponsor's actions must be genuine and transparent in order to strengthen women's perceptions of sponsor sincerity. Although not significantly proven, findings from this study implied that perceptions of sincerity may impact women mainly at the higher levels of effect (i.e., affection and behaviour). In this case, sponsor messaging should be emotionally-based with a possible call-to-action.

Gender solidarity was found to be strong among women. Women seek opportunities to support women's sports and causes. Sponsors can tap into this emotional space by supporting women's sports and causes and genuinely promoting these associations. Having said this, women's response to sponsorship was consistent across both women's and men's hockey games. Sponsors should therefore not limit themselves to women's sports and causes and can consider broader opportunities to engage women. Comparable gender involvement with the sport of hockey reported in this study supports the proposition that women are actively engaged in sports beyond the traditional female-oriented activities. The risk of pink-saturation was also implied through the findings of this study. The suggestion made here to sponsors is not to avoid pink-themed event sponsorship but rather to expand consideration beyond simply stereotypical female events and sports. Resonance can be derived from sources other than gender. For instance, during the collection of data for this study, several men anecdotally commented on the fact that they actively support breast cancer research because family member have suffered from this disease.

Marketing to Men through CRSS

Given the many similarities confirmed between genders, the fit, sincerity, and activation related suggestions (made above) for marketing to women are equally applicable to a male audience. One noted difference is that the effect of sincerity on men was suggested to be strongest at the level of cognition. Given this finding, a more rational communication approach could be used to establish sincerity with men. Men indicated significantly greater involvement with cancer-cause affiliated events (versus social-causes). Sponsors seeking to engage a male audience should therefore prioritize cancer causes over social causes. This study was limited in its consideration of only two broad types of causes. There are many other causes (such as education, animal welfare, environment, etc.) that are available to sponsors and event organizers for the purpose of partnership. Male respondents reported strong involvement with both cause and sport. Sponsors of charity-linked hockey events can therefore leverage either of these properties in their promotional efforts. The platform for potential consumer engagement is broadened when multiple properties come together. Given that men's reported involvement with sport was higher than cause, messaging priority for a male audience could first be given to the sponsored sport. In this study, the interaction of sponsorship predictors was somewhat diluted for men when attending female hockey games. While it was recommended that targeting women through sponsorship not be confined by gender lines, in the case of men, continuing to sponsor traditional male (or gender neutral) sports may remain most effective.

General Recommendations

Regardless of gender, sponsors should connect with their targeted consumers through points of relevance. The merging of sport and cause effectively expands the platform for consumer

engagement. Meaningful connections can be made through affiliations with sport and/or through cause. Marketers must understand their consumers at deeper levels than simply gender. It is essential to recognize and respond to significant gender differences in order to effectively satisfy the needs of different consumer segments. Equally important is the need to seek and accept gender similarities in developing common marketing strategies.

6.4 Limitations of this Study

Limitations of this current study should be kept in mind when interpreting results. Given that data was gathered at five different hockey events linked to a variety of causes, demographic characteristics varied between event samples. These differences (mainly in age and number of dependent children) were analyzed and determined to have a minimal impact on reported findings. These demographic variations across samples remain however a limitation of this study. Whitten (1989) cautioned that "meaning is derived from context" (p.492). In order to accurately capture research results, we must first acknowledge where and when data was collected. In the case of this dissertation, the common denominator across all tested venues was cause-linked hockey events. The inclusion of both men's and women's hockey allowed for interesting comparisons that contributed to gender findings. The consistency of hockey however did restrict findings to this one sport. Geographic coverage spanned three different Canadian cities however these were all Ontario-based. Given this one sport and one province coverage, findings cannot be generalized to other sports or geographic markets without further collaborating research. The number of affiliated causes provided more breadth than did sport by including four different charitable organizations. These were grouped by themes of cancer and social-related causes for the purpose of data analysis and discussion. Again, this treatment of samples allowed for insightful comparisons and new discoveries but findings are limited to these

specific types of causes and are unable to be extended to charitable causes beyond this particular scope of inquiry.

The inclusion of cause-related issues can elicit social desirability response bias when relying on self-reported data (Hyllegard et al., 2011). A bias such as this could inflate favourable response. Field based studies also introduce uncontrollable factors that can influence respondents. For instance, at Event #4 the research table was set up in a high traffic entrance that was very cold. In this setting respondents appeared rushed to complete the survey. In comparison, at Event #5, the research station was located near the concession area where long waiting lines may have encouraged more thoughtful response. Gender support was also treated in more of an exploratory fashion as pre-existing sponsorship measurements were non-existing. Gender solidarity was examined strictly from the female perspective and did not consider this same dynamic from a male standpoint. As is common practice in the sponsorship literature, the behavioural measures were based on intentions and not actual behaviour. It is acknowledged that there are many situations in which intentions do not accurately predict actual behaviour.

6.5 Direction for Future Research

The framework originally developed by Speed and Thompson (2000) and later extended by Alay (2008), has been further advanced through this study of CRSS and gender comparisons. The scope of this investigation was purposely broad in order to extend the boundaries of sponsorship knowledge. This included measuring the influence of multiple consumer and sponsorship variables (gender, gender support, involvement with sport, involvement with cause, sponsor-event fit, and perceived sincerity of the sponsor) on three levels of sponsorship response (interest, favourability, and use), with four levels of sample analysis (i.e., all events, type of

hockey, type of cause, event specific). As a follow-up to this study, a tighter scope of particular elements of this model could offer additional depth of understanding. For instance, the *Diamond of CRSS Goodwill* framework could be empirically verified to validate the suggested relationships and exchanges between stakeholders in cause-linked sport sponsorship arrangements.

Gender support as an influence in consumer processing of sponsorship was introduced in this study. Further efforts are needed to better understand the role of this variable from the perspective of both genders. Sources of gender solidarity (sport, cause, or other) could also be explored and measured in terms of influence in the sponsorship process. Consumer response measured along the hierarchy of effects could also be re-examined in terms of gender differences to substantiate suggestions that women's engagement may be more affective while men's may be more cognitive.

The construct of involvement could also be further extended to capture the emotional involvement of consumers. This would be of particular interest where causes are involved and could be differentiated by gender and types of cause. Chang (2012) measured emotional involvement with cause with the following three statements; i) "I felt warm-hearted thinking about the event"; ii) "I was moved thinking about the event"; and iii) "I became emotional thinking about the event" (p.327). The Psychological Continuum Model developed by Funk and James (2001) could also be used to measure levels of sport (or cause) consumer connection along the continuum of awareness, attraction, attachment or allegiance.

The extent to which these findings are applicable to other sports, causes, and geographical markets should also be empirically examined. These could be isolated by gender (i.e., female

sports and causes versus male sports and causes) or could integrate more gender-neutral properties. Cause considerations should extend beyond the two broad types (i.e., cancer and social) considered in this study. Piper & Sylke (2007) found that women had greater support for causes that involved animals, education and the elderly while men preferred to support sports and recreational causes. Consideration for these and other topical causes (such as the environment or mental health) would be of significant value in advancing cause-related sponsorship knowledge.

The growth of participant-based CRSS events should also be considered in measuring consumer response to sponsorship. Charitable organizations are increasingly relying on sport-based events to raise awareness and funds for their respective causes. Several recent studies have focused on these important events by examining motivations for participation (Bennett et al., 2007; Taylor & Shanka, 2008; Wood et al., 2010). These efforts have confirmed that involvement is a powerful influence in these settings. The current study sampled spectators of charity-linked sporting events. Future research could extend findings to participant-based events in order to examine differences in involvement levels and the corresponding impact on sponsorship response. Women are particularly drawn to sport-based fundraising events (Bennett et al., 2007) and therefore gender comparisons would also be insightful in such settings. For sponsors of participant-based charity-linked sporting events, understanding the motives of participation would also be helpful in developing promotional messaging. For instance, if men are more motivated by the sport, and women by the cause, then distinct marketing messaging would be required to effectively engage the sponsor's particular consumer target.

Future research could also consider consumer response to the non-profit partner. Bennett, Kim, and Loken (2013) recently discovered that "there are caveats to the win-win" (p.297) generally

expected in the merging of sport and cause sponsorships. Consumers' willingness to individually donate to non-profit partners was diminished by the presence of corporate sponsorship (Bennett et al., 2013). Gender comparisons in this context would be interesting as would the measurement of the simultaneous impact on perceptions of both the non-profit and the sponsor. These findings would enhance the understanding and applicability of the *Diamond of CRSS Goodwill* by extending consideration to both positive and negative exchange.

Sponsorship response can be impacted by many variables beyond the current scope of investigation. Among others, these could include further demographic variables, sponsorship portfolios, duration of partnerships, competitive activity, or sponsorship activation. Sponsorship activation was commonly noted throughout this dissertation as a key factor in sponsorship response. The addition of this variable to the current predictors of sponsorship outcomes would inject an additional level of understanding. In the current data collection, several participants commented on a lack of awareness of the affiliated charity. Formally measuring consumers' knowledge of affiliated partners would help in contextualizing responses. For instance, consumers could be asked if they feel that they were well informed about the cause linked to the attended sport event. Activation measures could also distinguish the impact of sponsor-oriented and charity-oriented messaging on consumer perceptions of sponsor sincerity.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Event #1 -Nipissing University Men's Hockey Real Men Wear Pink Survey

Sponsorship of Charity-Linked Sporting Events

1. Please select the event that you are attending, or recently attended:

- ○ Female Charity- Linked Hockey Event
- ○ Male Charity- Linked Hockey Event

2. Please indicate your gender.

- ○ Male
- ○ Female

3. Please select your age group.

- ○ 18-24
- ○ 25-34
- ○ 35-44
- ○ 45-54
- ○ 55-64
- ○ 65 or Above

4. What is your total household income?

- ○ Under $20,000
- ○ $20,000 - $30,000
- ○ $30,000 - $40,000
- ○ $40,000 - $50,000
- ○ $50,000 - $75,000

- ○ $75,000 - $100,000
- ○ $100,000 - $150,000
- ○ $150,000 or more
- ○ Prefer Not to Answer

5. If you have children, how many of your children currently live in your household?

- ○ 0
- ○ 1
- ○ 2
- ○ 3
- ○ 4
- ○ More than 4
- ○ Not Applicable

6. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I regularly feel that I want to become involved in events that support the charity (Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation) associated with this game/event.	○	○	○	○	○
My decision to attend this charity linked hockey game/event was mainly determined by my desire to help the cause of breast cancer.	○	○	○	○	○
Supporting a charity gives me a sense of satisfaction.	○	○	○	○	○
Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is an	○	○	○	○	○

important part of my life.					
Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is one of the most enjoyable activities for me.	○	○	○	○	○
Most of my friends are in some way connected with hockey.	○	○	○	○	○
There is a logical connection (or association) between this charity linked hockey game and the main sponsor(s).	○	○	○	○	○
The image of this event and the image of the main sponsor(s) are similar.	○	○	○	○	○
It makes sense to me that this company sponsors a charity-linked hockey event.	○	○	○	○	○

7. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
It is important for me to show support for women's sporting events.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for men's sporting events.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for women's charitable/social causes.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for men's charitable/social causes.	○	○	○	○	○
The main reason the sponsor(s) are involved in this event is that they believe that charitable sporting events deserve support.	○	○	○	○	○
Sponsor(s) of this event likely have the best interest of the cause at heart.	○	○	○	○	○

8. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
This sponsorship makes me more likely to notice the sponsors' name on other occasions than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship makes me more likely to pay attention to the sponsors' advertising and other promotions than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
Sponsorship of this charity linked hockey event makes me feel more favourable toward the sponsoring companies than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship improves my perception of the sponsoring companies more than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship makes me more likely to consider the sponsor(s) the next time I am in need of these products/services.	○	○	○	○	○
I am more likely to buy the sponsoring company's products/services as a result of their sponsorship of this charity linked hockey event.	○	○	○	○	○

9. Please include in the space below any additional feedback on the sponsorship of causes through sporting events. Your input is very much appreciated.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

As part of this sponsorship research, you are invited to participate in a draw for an iPad Mini. If you wish to be included in this draw, please complete the ballot provided by the research team. A separate draw ballot will ensure that your response to this survey remains anonymous.

Appendix B: Event #2 - Laurentian University Women's Hockey Pink the Rink Survey

Sponsorship of Charity-Linked Sporting Events

1. Please select the event that you are attending, or recently attended:

- ○ Female Charity-Linked Hockey Event
- ○ Male Charity-Linked Hockey Event

2. Please indicate your gender.

- ○ Male
- ○ Female

3. Please select your age group.

- ○ 18-24
- ○ 25-34
- ○ 35-44
- ○ 45-54
- ○ 55-64
- ○ 65 or Above

4. What is your total household income?

- ○ Under $20,000
- ○ $20,000 - $30,000
- ○ $30,000 - $40,000
- ○ $40,000 - $50,000
- ○ $50,000 - $75,000
- ○ $75,000 - $100,000
- ○ $100,000 - $150,000

- ○ $150,000 or more
- ○ Prefer Not to Answer

5. If you have children, how many of your children currently live in your household?

- ○ 0
- ○ 1
- ○ 2
- ○ 3
- ○ 4
- ○ More than 4
- ○ Not Applicable

6. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I regularly feel that I want to become involved in events that support the charity (Northern Cancer Research Foundation) associated with this game/event.	○	○	○	○	○
My decision to attend this charity-linked hockey game/event was mainly determined by my desire to help the Northern Cancer Research Foundation.	○	○	○	○	○
Supporting a charity gives me a sense of satisfaction.	○	○	○	○	○
Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is an important part of my life.	○	○	○	○	○

Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is one of the most enjoyable activities for me.	○	○	○	○	○
Most of my friends are in some way connected with hockey.	○	○	○	○	○
There is a logical connection (or association) between this charity-linked hockey game and the main sponsor (Deluxe Hamburgers).	○	○	○	○	○
The image of this event and the image of the main sponsor(s) are similar.	○	○	○	○	○
It makes sense to me that this organization sponsors a charity-linked hockey event.	○	○	○	○	○

7. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
It is important for me to show support for women's sporting events.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for men's sporting events.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for women's charitable/social causes.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for men's charitable/social causes.	○	○	○	○	○
The main reason the sponsor(s) are involved in this event is that they believe that charitable sporting events deserve support.	○	○	○	○	○
Sponsor(s) of this event likely have the best interest of the cause at heart.	○	○	○	○	○

8. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
This sponsorship makes me more likely to notice the sponsors' name on other occasions than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship makes me more likely to pay attention to the sponsors' advertising and other promotions than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
Sponsorship of this charity-linked hockey event makes me feel more favourable toward the sponsoring companies than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship improves my perception of the sponsoring companies more than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship makes me more likely to consider the sponsor(s) the next time I am in need of these products/services.	○	○	○	○	○
I am more likely to buy the sponsoring company's products/services as a result of their sponsorship of this charity-linked hockey event.	○	○	○	○	○

9. Please include in the space below any additional feedback on the sponsorship of causes through sporting events. Your input is very much appreciated.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

As part of this sponsorship research, you are invited to participate in a draw for an iPad Mini. If you wish to be included in this draw, please complete the ballot provided by the research team. A separate draw ballot will ensure that your response to this survey remains anonymous.

Appendix C: Event #3 - Nipissing University Women's Hockey Pink the Rink Survey

Sponsorship of Charity-Linked Sporting Events

1. Please select the event that you are attending, or recently attended:

- ○ Female Charity-Linked Hockey Event
- ○ Male Charity-Linked Hockey Event

2. Please indicate your gender.

- ○ Male
- ○ Female

3. Please select your age group.

- ○ 18-24
- ○ 25-34
- ○ 35-44
- ○ 45-54
- ○ 55-64
- ○ 65 or Above

4. What is your total household income?

- ○ Under $20,000
- ○ $20,000 - $30,000
- ○ $30,000 - $40,000
- ○ $40,000 - $50,000
- ○ $50,000 - $75,000
- ○ $75,000 - $100,000

- ○ $100,000 - $150,000
- ○ $150,000 or more
- ○ Prefer Not to Answer

5. If you have children, how many of your children currently live in your household?

- ○ 0
- ○ 1
- ○ 2
- ○ 3
- ○ 4
- ○ More than 4
- ○ Not Applicable

6. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I regularly feel that I want to become involved in events that support the charity associated with this game (Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation).	○	○	○	○	○
My decision to attend this charity-linked hockey game was mainly determined by my desire to help the Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation.	○	○	○	○	○
Supporting a charity gives me a sense of satisfaction.	○	○	○	○	○

Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is an important part of my life.	○	○	○	○	○
Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is one of the most enjoyable activities for me.	○	○	○	○	○
Most of my friends are in some way connected with hockey.	○	○	○	○	○
There is a logical connection (or association) between this charity-linked hockey game and the main sponsor (True North Chevrolet Cadillac).	○	○	○	○	○
The image of this event and the image of the main sponsor (True North Chevrolet and Cadillac) are similar.	○	○	○	○	○
It makes sense to me that this organization (True North Chevrolet Cadillac) sponsors a charity-linked hockey event.	○	○	○	○	○

7. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
It is important for me to show support for women's sporting events.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for men's sporting events.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for women's charitable/social causes.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for men's charitable/social causes.	○	○	○	○	○
The main reason the sponsor(s) are involved in this event is that they believe that	○	○	○	○	○

charitable sporting events deserve support.					
Sponsor(s) of this event likely have the best interest of the cause at heart.	○	○	○	○	○

8. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
This sponsorship makes me more likely to notice the sponsor's name (True North Chevrolet Cadillac) on other occasions than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship makes me more likely to pay attention to the sponsor's advertising and other promotions than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
Sponsorship of this charity-linked hockey event makes me feel more favourable toward the sponsoring company than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship improves my perception of the sponsoring company more than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship makes me more likely to consider the sponsor the next time I am in need of these products/services.	○	○	○	○	○
I am more likely to buy the sponsoring company’s products/services as a result of their sponsorship of this charity-linked hockey event.	○	○	○	○	○

9. Please include in the space below any additional feedback on the sponsorship of causes through sporting events. Your input is very much appreciated.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

As part of this sponsorship research, you are invited to participate in a draw for an iPad Mini. If you wish to be included in this draw, please complete the ballot provided by the research team. A separate draw ballot will ensure that your response to this survey remains anonymous.

Appendix D: Event #4 – Ottawa Senators NHL Food Drive Game Survey

Sponsorship of Charity-Linked Sporting Events

1. Please select the event that you are attending, or recently attended:

- ○ Female Charity-Linked Hockey Event
- ○ Male Charity-Linked Hockey Event

2. Please indicate your gender.

- ○ Male
- ○ Female

3. Please select your age group.

- ○ 18-24
- ○ 25-34
- ○ 35-44
- ○ 45-54
- ○ 55-64
- ○ 65 or Above

4. What is your total household income?

- ○ Under $20,000
- ○ $20,000 - $30,000
- ○ $30,000 - $40,000
- ○ $40,000 - $50,000
- ○ $50,000 - $75,000
- ○ $75,000 - $100,000
- ○ $100,000 - $150,000

- ○ $150,000 or more
- ○ Prefer Not to Answer

5. If you have children, how many of your children currently live in your household?

- ○ 0
- ○ 1
- ○ 2
- ○ 3
- ○ 4
- ○ More than 4
- ○ Not Applicable

6. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I regularly feel that I want to become involved in events that support the charity/cause (i.e. The Ottawa Food Bank) associated with this game	○	○	○	○	○
My decision to attend this charity-linked hockey game was mainly determined by my desire to help the Ottawa Food Bank.	○	○	○	○	○
Supporting a charity gives me a sense of satisfaction.	○	○	○	○	○
Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is an important part of my life.	○	○	○	○	○
Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is one of the most enjoyable activities for	○	○	○	○	○

me.					
Most of my friends are in some way connected with hockey.	○	○	○	○	○
There is a logical connection (or association) between this charity-linked hockey game and the main sponsor (Canadian Tire).	○	○	○	○	○
The image of this event (Ottawa Senators Food Drive Night) and the image of the main sponsor (Canadian Tire) are similar.	○	○	○	○	○
It makes sense to me that this organization (Canadian Tire) sponsors a charity-linked hockey event.	○	○	○	○	○

7. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
It is important for me to show support for women's sporting events.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for men's sporting events.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for women's charitable/social causes.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for men's charitable/social causes.	○	○	○	○	○
The main reason that the sponsor (Canadian Tire) is involved in this event is that they believe that charitable sporting events deserve support.	○	○	○	○	○
The sponsor of this event (Canadian Tire) likely has the best interest of the cause at	○	○	○	○	○

heart.					

8. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
This sponsorship makes me more likely to notice the sponsor's name (Canadian Tire) on other occasions than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship makes me more likely to pay attention to the sponsor's advertising and other promotions than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
Sponsorship of this charity-linked hockey event makes me feel more favourable toward the sponsoring company than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship improves my perception of the sponsoring company more than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship makes me more likely to consider the sponsor the next time I am in need of their products/services.	○	○	○	○	○
I am more likely to buy the sponsoring company’s products/services as a result of their sponsorship of this charity-linked hockey event.	○	○	○	○	○

9. Please include in the space below any additional feedback on the sponsorship of causes through sporting events. Your input is very much appreciated.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

As part of this sponsorship research, you are invited to participate in a draw for an iPad Mini. If you wish to be included in this draw, please complete the ballot provided by the research team. A separate draw ballot will ensure that your response to this survey remains anonymous.

Appendix E: Event #5 – Sudbury Wolves Teddy Bear Toss Game Survey

Sponsorship of Charity-Linked Sporting Events

1. Please select the event that you are attending, or recently attended:

- ○ Female Charity-Linked Hockey Event
- ○ Male Charity-Linked Hockey Event

2. Please indicate your gender.

- ○ Male
- ○ Female

3. Please select your age group.

- ○ 18-24
- ○ 25-34
- ○ 35-44
- ○ 45-54
- ○ 55-64
- ○ 65 or Above

4. What is your total household income?

- ○ Under $20,000
- ○ $20,000 - $30,000
- ○ $30,000 - $40,000
- ○ $40,000 - $50,000
- ○ $50,000 - $75,000
- ○ $75,000 - $100,000

- ○ $100,000 - $150,000
- ○ $150,000 or more
- ○ Prefer Not to Answer

5. If you have children, how many of your children currently live in your household?

- ○ 0
- ○ 1
- ○ 2
- ○ 3
- ○ 4
- ○ More than 4
- ○ Not Applicable

6. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I regularly feel that I want to become involved in events that support the charity/cause (i.e. the Salvation Army) associated with this game.	○	○	○	○	○
My decision to attend this charity-linked hockey game was mainly determined by my desire to help the Salvation Army.	○	○	○	○	○
Supporting a charity gives me a sense of satisfaction.	○	○	○	○	○

Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is an important part of my life.	○	○	○	○	○
Hockey (as a player and/or spectator) is one of the most enjoyable activities for me.	○	○	○	○	○
Most of my friends are in some way connected with hockey.	○	○	○	○	○
There is a logical connection (or association) between this charity-linked hockey game and the main sponsor (Travelodge Hotel Sudbury).	○	○	○	○	○
The image of this event (Sudbury Wolves Teddy Bear Toss) and the image of the main sponsor (Travelodge Hotel) are similar.	○	○	○	○	○
It makes sense to me that this organization (Travelodge Hotel) sponsors a charity-linked hockey event.	○	○	○	○	○

7. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
It is important for me to show support for women's sporting events.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for men's sporting events.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for women's charitable/social causes.	○	○	○	○	○
It is important for me to show support for men's charitable/social causes.	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
The main reason that the sponsor (Travelodge) is involved in this event is that they believe that charitable sporting events deserve support.	○	○	○	○	○
The sponsor of this event (Travelodge) likely has the best interest of the cause at heart.	○	○	○	○	○

8. Please indicate your level of agreement by selecting the option (on a scale of 1 to 5) that best represents how you feel about each of the statements below.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
This sponsorship makes me more likely to notice the sponsor's name (Travelodge Hotel) on other occasions than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship makes me more likely to pay attention to Travelodge's advertising and other promotions than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
Sponsorship of this charity-linked hockey event makes me feel more favourable toward Travelodge Hotel than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship improves my perception of Travelodge Hotel more than I might otherwise.	○	○	○	○	○
This sponsorship makes me more likely to consider Travelodge the next time I am in need of a hotel.	○	○	○	○	○
I am more likely to stay at Travelodge Hotels as a result of their sponsorship of	○	○	○	○	○

this charity-linked hockey event.					

9. Please include in the space below any additional feedback on the sponsorship of causes through sporting events. Your input is very much appreciated.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

As part of this sponsorship research, you are invited to participate in a draw for an iPad Mini. If you wish to be included in this draw, please complete the ballot provided by the research team. A separate draw ballot will ensure that your response to this survey remains anonymous.

Appendix F: Consent Form for Research Participation

Title of Study: *An Investigation of Sponsorship Effects at Charity-Linked Sporting Events: A Gendered Consumer Perspective*

Principal Investigator:
Denyse Lafrance Horning
PhD Student
Laurentian University
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Thesis Supervisor:
Dr. Norm O'Reilly
Associate Professor / Adjunct Professor
University of Ottawa/ Laurentian University
(613) 562-5800, ext 7083
1-877-868-8292
Norman.Oreilly@uOttawa.ca

Invitation to Participate: You are invited to participate in the abovementioned research study conducted by Denyse Lafrance Horning from the PhD in Human Studies Program at Laurentian University. The results of this study will contribute to PhD student research.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of this research is to understand the consumer effects of sponsorship at sporting events associated with a cause. The role of gender in predicting sponsorship outcomes is being explored by comparing findings between adult (i.e. 18 years and older) male and female respondents.

Participation: Participation in this study consist of completing a brief survey (approximately 5 minutes) during which you will be asked to answer questions and provide your opinion on different subjects relating to the sponsorship of sporting events associated with a charitable cause. You may complete this survey at the event or on-line at the following link: http://fluidsurveys.com/surveys/dlh/sudbury-wolves-teddy-bear-toss/ . Once the questionnaire is done, your participation in this study is complete.

Risks: There are no foreseeable risks in participating in this study as all answers will remain anonymous. Participation in this study is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time. Respondents have the right to refuse to answer any questions that they find objectionable or which make them feel uncomfortable.

Benefits: Your participation in this study with help event organizers, sponsors and charitable organizations learn more about the impact of sponsorship on participants and spectators of sporting events that affiliate with charitable causes and will assist in the ongoing success of such important events. A better understanding of the effects of sponsorship on consumers will allow event organizers and sponsors to develop effective programs that best meet the needs of various consumer and organizational segments.

Confidentiality and Anonymity: You are not asked to provide any unique identifiers in this questionnaire in order to ensure complete anonymity of participants. As such, the confidentiality of the respondents will be fully maintained. Any information that is obtained from research in connection with this study is anonymous.

Conservation of Data: The data collected through this study will be stored in a secure manner (locked in the private office of the principal investigator) and only the researchers will have access to it. The data collected will be kept for a maximum of five (5) years before electronic files are securely deleted from hard drives and hard copy data is shredded.

Compensations: There is no compensation for this study other than the chance to win a draw prize. Ballot information will only be used for this draw and will not be shared for any other purpose.

Voluntary Participation: You are under no obligation to participate in this study. If you choose to participate, you can withdraw from the study at any time and /or refuse to answer any questions, without suffering any negative consequences. If you choose to withdraw, all data gathered until the time of withdrawal will be used in the study unless you specify that you do not wish for it to be used in which case it will be destroyed.

Consent: By completing either the hard copy survey or the on-line questionnaire (as instructed by the researcher of your particular event), you are consenting to participate in this study. Please keep a copy of this information letter for your reference.

Research Contacts: For further information regarding this research you may contact the researcher or her supervisor. This study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through the Laurentian University Research Ethics Board (REB # 2013-07-12) and the Nipissing University Research Ethics Board (REB#13-10-14IA). If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please contact: Research Ethics Officer, Laurentian University Research Office, telephone: 705-675-1151 ext 2436 or toll free at 1-800-461-4030 or email ethics@laurentian.ca.

Research Results: If you wish to receive results from this study, please provide your preferred contact information below. This personal information will be used for the sole purpose of sharing research results and will not be shared with others.

_____

_____

Thank you for your participation.

Denyse Lafrance Horning
PhD Student
Laurentian University

Appendix G: Reliability of Measurement Scales

Sample/Scale	PIC	PIS	PI	GSW	GSM	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
Total Sample										
IIC-Mean	.38	.62	.33	.79	.74	.59	.67	.75	.75	.76
α	.62	.83	.74	.88	.85	.81	.80	.86	.86	.87
N	640	637	635	639	641	634	640	642	639	640
Event Type 1: Women's Charity-Linked Hockey Events										
IIC-Mean	.44	.66	.29	.70	.68	.61	.61	.68	.59	.71
α	.67	.86	.70	.82	.81	.82	.76	.81	.74	.83
N	200	200	200	199	200	198	200	200	200	200
Event Type 2: Men's Charity-Linked Hockey Events										
IIC-Mean	.35	.60	.35	.81	.76	.57	.68	.78	.81	.79
α	.59	.82	.76	.89	.86	.80	.81	.86	.89	.88
N	440	437	435	440	441	436	440	442	439	440
Cancer-Cause Events										
IIC-Mean	.47	.67	.37	.76	.72	.62	.60	.70	.64	.73
α	.70	.86	.77	.86	.83	.83	.75	.82	.78	.84
N	259	260	259	259	259	255	260	260	259	259
Social -Cause Events										
IIC-Mean	.31	.58	.31	.80	.76	.56	.69	.78	.81	.78
α	.55	.81	.72	.89	.86	.79	.82	.88	.90	.88
N	381	377	376	380	382	379	380	382	380	381
Event #1: NU Real Men Wear Pink										
IIC-Mean	.54	.69	.55	.87	.79	.63	.60	.77	.76	.79
α	.75	.87	.87	.93	.88	.84	.75	.87	.86	.88
N	59	60	59	60	59	57	60	60	59	59
Event #2: LU Pink the Rink										
IIC-Mean	.49	.69	.29	.74	.70	.61	.62	.59	.57	.61
α	.71	.87	.71	.85	.82	.83	.76	.74	.73	.75
N	101	101	101	100	101	100	101	101	101	101
Event #3: NU Pink the Rink										
IIC-Mean	.39	.64	.29	.65	.67	.61	.59	.73	.60	.78
α	.63	.84	.70	.78	.80	.83	.74	.84	.74	.87
N	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99
Event #4: Ottawa Senators Food Drive Night										
IIC-Mean	.24	.56	.29	.78	.71	.52	.64	.78	.75	.70
α	.47	.79	.71	.88	.83	.77	.78	.88	.86	.82
N	215	213	213	214	215	214	214	215	215	215
Event #5: Sudbury Wolves Toy Drive										
IIC-Mean	.41	.60	.33	.83	.83	.63	.78	.78	.88	.87
α	.66	.82	.74	.90	.91	.84	.87	.88	.94	.93
N	166	164	163	166	167	165	166	167	165	166

Appendix H: Correlation Matrices for Each Sampled Event

Correlation Matrix - Event 1

		PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
PI	Pearson Correlation		.574**	.282*	.319*	.299*	.302*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.029	.013	.020	.019
	R^2		.329	.080	.102	.089	.091
	N		60	60	60	60	60
FIT	Pearson Correlation			.590**	.540**	.506**	.522**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2			.348	.292	.256	.272
	N			60	60	60	60
SINC	Pearson Correlation				.558**	.492**	.492**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
	R^2				.311	.242	.242
	N				60	60	60
INT	Pearson Correlation					.699**	.681**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
	R^2					.489	.464
	N					60	60
FAV	Pearson Correlation						.783**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	R^2						.613
	N						60
	M	3.797	3.91	4.21	3.88	3.91	3.94
	SD	.8830	.813	.815	.795	.810	.792

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlation Matrix -Event 2

		PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
PI	Pearson Correlation		.186	.267**	.236*	.326**	.166
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.063	.007	.018	.001	.098
	R^2		.035	.071	.056	.106	.028
	N		101	101	101	101	101
FIT	Pearson Correlation			.435**	.498**	.355**	.334**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.001
	R^2			.189	.248	.126	.112
	N			101	101	101	101
SINC	Pearson Correlation				.386**	.426**	.397**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
	R^2				.149	.181	.158
	N				101	101	101
INT	Pearson Correlation					.670**	.624**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
	R^2					.449	.389
	N					101	101
FAV	Pearson Correlation						.696**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	R^2						.484
	N						101
	M	4.08	3.64	4.37	4.00	4.09	4.02
	SD	0.62	.793	.636	.620	.589	.703

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlation Matrix -Event 3

		PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
PI	Pearson Correlation		.476**	.506**	.325**	.229*	.275**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.001	.023	.006
	R^2		.227	.256	.106	.052	.076
	N		99	99	99	99	99
FIT	Pearson Correlation			.447**	.537**	.478**	.530**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2			.200	.288	.228	.281
	N			99	99	99	99
SINC	Pearson Correlation				.478**	.425**	.381**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
	R^2				.228	.181	.145
	N				99	99	99
INT	Pearson Correlation					.648**	.667**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
	R^2					.648	.667
	N					99	99
FAV	Pearson Correlation						.733**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	R^2						.537
	N						99
	M	3.98	3.50	4.16	3.81	3.90	3.68
	SD	0.63	.824	.699	.822	.725	.774

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlation Matrix-Event 4

		PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
PI	Pearson Correlation		.460**	.411**	.452**	.378**	.423**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2		.212	.169	.204	.143	.179
	N		215	215	215	215	215
FIT	Pearson Correlation			.514**	.540**	.374**	.394**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2			.264	.292	.140	.155
	N			215	215	215	215
SINC	Pearson Correlation				.493**	.371**	.372**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
	R^2				.243	.138	.138
	N				215	215	215
INT	Pearson Correlation					.716**	.691**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
	R^2					.513	.477
	N					215	215
FAV	Pearson Correlation						.750**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	R^2						.563
	N						215
	M	3.76	3.75	3.97	3.66	3.81	3.71
	SD	0.62	.708	.833	.882	.763	.815

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlation Matrix - Event 5

		PI	FIT	SINC	INT	FAV	USE
PI	Pearson Correlation		.599**	.586**	.522**	.499**	.488**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2		.359	.343	.272	.249	.238
	N		167	167	167	167	167
FIT	Pearson Correlation			.685**	.617**	.582**	.545**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000
	R^2			.469	.381	.339	.297
	N			167	167	167	167
SINC	Pearson Correlation				.558**	.617**	.583**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.000	.000
	R^2				.311	.381	.340
	N				167	167	167
INT	Pearson Correlation					.807**	.755**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	.000
	R^2					.651	.570
	N					167	167
FAV	Pearson Correlation						.844**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	R^2						.712
	N						167
	M	3.95	3.79	4.02	3.81	3.76	3.72
	SD	0.61	.780	.792	.809	.867	.969

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Non Parametric Correlation Matrix (Spearman rho) – Event Specific Samples

		Personal Involvement					Fit			Sincerity		
Event		PI * FIT	PI* SINC	PI* INT	PI* FAV	PI* USE	FIT* INT	FIT* FAV	FIT* USE	SINC* INT	SINC* FAV	SINC* USE
Event 1 N=60	rho	.611**	.269*	.325*	.295*	.357**	.462**	.483**	.527**	.467**	.424**	.480**
	p	.000	.038	.011	.022	.005	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000
Event 2 N=101	rho	.197*	.294**	.276**	.353**	.223*	.460**	.343**	.346**	.437**	.425**	.447**
	p	.049	.003	.005	.000	.025	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Event 3 N=99	rho	.469**	.521**	.282**	.232*	.251*	.530**	.501**	.585**	.473**	.425**	.318**
	p	.000	.000	.005	.021	.012	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
Event 4 N=215	rho	.471**	.413**	.450**	.349**	.418**	.486**	.359**	.393**	.462**	.335**	.369**
	p	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Event 5 N=167	rho	.495**	.484**	.469**	.425**	.458**	.581**	.594**	.579**	.500**	.579**	.579**
	p	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
**Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).